A Handbook for

Social Agency Administration

A Handbook for

Social Agency Administration

by

ELWOOD STREET

EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR, THE COMMUNITY CHEST AND COUNCIL OF GREATER BRIDGEPORT AND STRATFORD, BRIDGEPORT, CONNECTICUT

NEW YORK Harper & Brothers LONDON

A HANDBOOK FOR

SOCIAL AGENCY ADMINISTRATION

PRINTED IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

This book was published in a smaller edition in 1931, under the title

SOCIAL WORK ADMINISTRATION

C-C

Dedicated to the late

MARY P. FOLLETT,

Patron Saint of Democracy in Administration

Contents

Preface

This book is intended for the use of social agency executives and sub-executives in their daily practice of administration; for students of the subject in schools of social work; and for guidance in matters of policy by board and committee members of social agencies.

The book is a complete revision of my earlier book, "Social Work Administration," published in 1931. Much of the material in the earlier book has been removed, as no longer applicable, or as obsolete because of improved practice. Much material has been added, because of changes in problems and procedures during these intervening sixteen years; and as a result of my own experience and thought in that time.

I should hardly have entered upon this major project of revision, had I not observed, in my visits to various parts of the country, that many sound principles and practices of social agency administration are not being followed, in many agencies.

While I take full responsibility for all that is said in this book, many people have made valuable contributions to the revision. When it was first contemplated, I sent copies of chapters from the original book to members of the Committee on Social Work Administration who had helped in the original assembling of material and who were still active in social work. I asked each to give his suggestions on the material sent to him. The response was cordial and helpful.

Those who responded and the chapters on which they commented are: Paul L. Benjamin, Executive Secretary, Related Activities Council, Schenectady, N. Y.: I, Administration and Its Importance; William H. Pear, Consultant, The Provident Association, Boston, Mass.: II, A Philosophy for Social Work Administrators; Edwin D. Solenberger, Secretary Emeritus of the Pennsylvania Children's Aid Society, Upper Darby, Pa.: III, The Constitution and Bylaws; J. August Wolf, Executive Director, Neighborhood Association, St. Louis, Mo.:

IV, the Board of Directors—A Vital Force; Edward D. Lynde, Executive Secretary, The Welfare Federation of Cleveland, O.: V and VI, Committee Management; Leroy A. Ramsdell, Executive Secretary, The Council of Social Agencies of Greater Hartford, Conn.: VII, The President; Alfred F. Whitman, Executive Secretary, Children's Aid Association, Boston, Mass.: VIII, The Qualifications of An Executive; J. Howard T. Falk, Executive Director, The Community Chest of Yonkers, N. Y.: IX, Self-Management for the Executive; Howard Braucher, President, National Recreation Association, New York City: X, More Details of Self-Management; Charles L. Chute, Executive Director, National Probation Association, New York City: XI and XII, The Executive's Office, and The Executive's Contacts with Outsiders; James W. McCandless, General Secretary, the Young Men's Christian Association of Los Angeles, Cal.: XIII, Office Location, Conditions and Arrangement; Mary B. Stotsenburg, Executive Secretary, Community Chest of Louisville and Jefferson County, Ky.: XVI, Personnel Policies; Arthur Dunham, Professor of Community Organization, Institute of Public and Social Administration, University of Michigan, Detroit, Mich.: XVIII, Managing the Office; Raymond F. Clapp, Principal Assistant Director, Board of Public Welfare, Washington, D. C.: XIX, Efficient Office Methods; John B. Dawson, Executive Director, The Community Fund of Philadelphia and Vicinity: XXII, Budget Making and Control; W. I. Newstetter, Dean, School of Applied Social Sciences, University of Pittsburgh, Pa.: XXIV, Purchasing and Stock Keeping; Albert H. Jewell, Associate Director, Council of Social Agencies, Kansas City, Mo.: XXV, Publicity Methods; Otto F. Bradley, Executive Director, Community Chest of Philadelphia and Vicinity: XXVI, Financial Administration.

The suggestions thus made were worked into a preliminary manuscript. It was dittoed in thirty duplicate sets, by my secretary, Mrs. Dorothy McSpadden. This preliminary revision was discussed, chapter by chapter, by a group of 25 agency executives and sub-executives of Houston, Texas. They met in seminar, under my leadership, for two hours an afternoon, weekly, from March through June, 1946. Copies of appropriate chapters were sent to members of the Houston Chapter of the National Office Management Association, with request for comment. Replies were received from John H. Anthony, Director, the Personnel Counselors, on Chapter XV, The Employment of a Staff, and from A. J. Biard, Office Manager, Operating Di-

vision, the United Gas Corporation, XVII, The Management of a Staff. Vance B. Lawrence, Controller of the Community Chest and Council of Houston and Harris County, made suggestions on Chapter XXI, Effective Accounting Methods; as did Elbert A. Hooker, then Research Director of the Community Council of that community, on XXIII, Statistics in Administration. From these suggestions, questions and discussions, many valuable ideas were gained and worked into a revised manuscript.

This manuscript proved to be too long for publication. At my suggestion, the publisher sent it to Miss Julia Minor, Executive Secretary, the Family and Children's Society, Montclair, N. J. We felt that this was a typical, well-conducted agency, and Miss Minor a typical, well-trained executive. She made excellent suggestions. These I adopted, in general, and brought the book to its present length and content.

To all these friends and helpers, old and new, I am deeply grateful. I trust they will feel that their aid is justified, through the serviceability of this volume to students and practitioners of social agency administration.

One word of apology is necessary. The critical reader may feel that the principles and practices of the Community Chest and Council of Houston and Harris County, Texas, are mentioned too frequently. My only excuse is that, as a practioner of the art of social agency administration, I attempted in that organization for nearly four years to apply all that I knew on the subject. Therefore, examples of those procedures might afford the best available illustrations of my intent.

Elwood Street

Bridgeport, Conn.
June, 10, 1947

A Handbook for

Social Agency Administration

Chapter I

Administration and Its Importance

WHAT IS SOCIAL WORK? Many have been the definitions of social work. None of them are very satisfactory.

Noah Webster's successors in unabridged editions of his Dictionary do not even mention social work. They do describe social service (which is about the same thing) as follows: "Any activity designed to promote social welfare; specifically, organized philanthropic assistance of the sick, destitute, or unfortunate by a hospital, church, or charitable agency; welfare work."

Even the Social Work Year Book, the biennially revised bible of social workers, does not define social work. The 1945 version makes a stab at it, however, in the article on Social Work as a Profession: "Modern social work may be described as a professional service to people for the purpose of assisting them, as individuals or in groups, to attain satisfying relationships and standards of life in accordance with their particular wishes and capacities and in harmony with those of the community." That is all right as far as it goes, but—

Here is what social work means, for the purposes of this book: social work is service to human beings, either individually or in families, as members of groups or in communities (and the term "community" has become steadily enlarged until some people think it covers the world). Social work as a profession uses techniques or skills which are known as case work, group work, and community organization. Closely affiliated and, for the purposes of this book, included within the realm of social work are professional services aimed at the treatment and prevention of physical and mental illness and at the attainment of social reform.

WHAT IS A SOCIAL AGENCY? For our objectives, social work is practiced through social agencies, which are given this name because they serve society. They are of two main types, according to the sources of the funds with which they operate. A private agency is an organization that is financed wholly or in part by contributed or invested

funds. A public agency is a department or branch of government supported by tax funds. To apply to or in behalf of human beings the professional techniques of social work described above, a social agency employs the special skills and procedures of public relations and of social work administration.

Essential to the operation of a social agency are a definite purpose and a specific program of activity. The agency's work is performed under responsible leadership and through a reasonably competent staff, in behalf of persons other than those who operate the organization. Although a social agency is organized and conducted not for profit but for social service, it may well adapt to its uses and employ successfully many procedures which by the sharp stimulus of the profit motive in the management of business and industry, as well as by operation of the altruistic motive in social work, have been demonstrated as effective. We shall therefore discuss the ways in which an agency of social work, broadly defined, may be effectively administered.

WHAT IS ADMINISTRATION? The administration of a social agency may be defined as those functions of its operation which are concerned with its management as distinguished from its professional treatment. Administration, for example, is concerned not so much with what records should be kept as with how those records should be kept; not so much with the purpose of the agency as with how the organization established for fulfillment of that purpose may be housed, staffed, and operated. Contrasted with the human service which is the fundamental purpose of social work, administration is the "business" of social work.

Consequently we shall neither discuss in this book the professional standards of social work nor describe any particular technique of social work. Professional standards will be promoted and social work technique improved, however, if the organization which strives for them runs its affairs on a businesslike basis. Effective management and effective human service are supplementary. That social agency which is most businesslike usually is most effective in performing the social service to which it is dedicated. Sound administration and competent professional service are the head and the heart which are essential to the effective activity of the body of organized humanitarian endeavor. That is social work!

GROWING SIGNIFICANCE OF ADMINISTRATION. The question of administration is of greater importance now, in these days of peace and reconversion after the Second World War, than ever before. Great

philanthropic foundations examine the methods of social agencies before they make their appropriations. Better business bureaus and charities endorsement committees of chambers of commerce require reasonably sound methods of administration, as well as other criteria of merit, in the social agencies which they certify to prospective contributors. Community councils of social agencies have developed cooperative social relationships in most of the large American urban areas. Community chest budget committees (and, through them, contributors) in nearly 1,000 communities are demanding business-like methods in the operation of the social agencies for which funds are appropriated. Public health, welfare, and social security services are maintained on an increasingly large scale and cover every community in the nation. At the same time, increasing demands for the expenditure of public funds in a multitude of ways are putting pressure on public social agencies to make good their claims for a share of tax budgets through effective management of the funds which are appropriated.

The growth of national and urban population and the war-born recognition of the value of health and welfare services to all the people have resulted in increased demand for these services. Furthermore, the increase in the national income has made available greatly increased funds given or paid in taxes for an expanded program of social work, the administration of which presents a problem greater and more challenging than ever in our national history.

The large and growing demand for competent administration is also a natural complement to the modern development of professional standards in diverse fields of social work which has followed the earlier days of social pioneering. Moreover, the post-war world, in this atomic age, is ever changing, and the social agency must through sound administrative practices be equipped to meet quickly the changing needs of changing times. Now more than ever must a social agency be competently administered if it is to serve effectively human beings in community, state, nation, or world.

QUESTIONS

1. What definitions of social work can you find or make?
2. What definitions of a social agency can you find or make?
3. What definitions of administration can you give?
4. How would you apply these definitions to social work administration?

5. How do you think the social agencies you know compare in their administrative practices with businesses you know?

6. What examples can you find of the pressure of philanthropic foundations, community councils of social agencies, community chests, charities endorsement committees, better business bureaus, and public authorities for better administrative methods?

Chapter II

Shared Administration

INTEGRATED LIFE ESSENTIAL FOR THE INDIVIDUAL AND FOR THE AGENCY. Your life is effective and adequate only if it is consistent within itself. To be happy and useful you must work out a harmony between your inherited tendencies, your experience, and your environment. Somehow you have to make the pieces of life fit together in a unified, creative whole. It is a tough job, particularly in the changing circumstances of this dynamic age. If you accomplish it, though, you will have what is called an integrated life.

Such a mode of life is necessary for a social agency as well. It, too, is a living organism. It lives, grows, and creates human values in the community. The agency's existence is made up of bits contributed by the people who run it. The agency's life is fully useful only if it hangs together within itself. It must express harmoniously the common aspirations and the mutual decisions of the people who are responsible for what it does and how it does it.

THE WHOLE GREATER THAN THE PARTS. There is another curious parallel between a human being, like ourselves, and an organization. Clergyman, philosopher, and psychiatrist agree that we humans are more than the sum total of our chemical and physical elements, in their unbelievable but undeniable formation into a more or less active entity. These elements working together and fused into a whole (by what some people call a soul, or by God) create all the activities and values of human life.

So it is with such an organization, as a well-administered social agency. A lot of human beings may be brought to share in its activities. Let us use the example of a mental hygiene clinic. Its participants range all the way from the volunteer president to the "naughty" little girl patient, who at this moment may be in the clinic's observation room slapping a doll which she pretends is her little brother, while the psychiatrist on the job tries to figure out why she hates the other kid so. Each person who is responsible for the work

of the clinic, or who is served by it, helps to make it what it is or may be, if the clinic is managed participatively. The sum of values can be greater than the parts.

You may wonder why this is true of organized human endeavor. Here is the answer: Let us return to human beings. We ourselves are the inheritors of all that man has been and has thought in the past. In that past, out of all man's many searchings for an integrated way of life, two main theories have survived, each struggling for dominance over the other and over the lives of men.

AUTOCRACY IN SOCIAL AGENCIES. One of these philosophies is that of autocracy or paternalism. We have come to think that its chief exponents are the Nazis or fascists, but their defeat in the Second World War does not mean that their ideas of managing human lives are beaten. We should not have to look far for evidence of this fact. We have even observed some social agencies which seem run on that discredited principle. The number of autocratic agencies is becoming steadily smaller, however, because autocracy is unsuccessful in the long run. Its mode of expression is, "You do what I tell you and I'll do what's good for you." It is repressive, not creative. Almost any psychiatric clinic will demonstrate that exercise of continual repression is no way to run human lives or organizations, a nation or a world.

DEMOCRACY THE VITAL WAY OF LIFE FOR AN AGENCY AS FOR AN INDIVIDUAL. The other way of attaining an integrated life is the creative method. It is the way of democracy or of participation in government by the governed. We believe it calls out and develops the capacities of human beings as does no other way of life.

The Nazis were defeated in the Second World War by something more than the mere total physical resources of the component parts of the United Nations. We may well believe that that something was the creative power of the participative way of life, even though we recognize how imperfectly that principle still is applied in our own and other nations. It is the power of growth, of good will, of sharing. It is the bomb-like chain reaction of spirit striking fire from spirit and kindling a flame of mutual activity.

This power must prevail increasingly in the human affairs of an atomic age. This we must believe, or perish. But we do believe it, and we are applying this principle of participation more and more in all the phases of life. The practice of creative democracy is spreading in government, in business and industry, in social agencies. Slowly but surely the autocrat gives way to the democrat.

PARTICIPATION IN SOCIAL MANAGEMENT. Of all human organizations, a social agency most heartily must follow these principles. For by its very nature a social agency is concerned with the rights and potentialities of human beings. It knows, by experience, the nobility of which all people are capable. It realizes that no one has yet discovered a limit to the possibilities in guiding and training human beings, whatever their ages and conditions. It is dedicated to the principle, stated or unstated, of the fatherhood of God and the brotherhood of man. As perhaps only the church can know it, though in a somewhat different way, the social agency works for and with the people. Necessarily, too, it works through them.

Surely, then, the social agency in which you are concerned can most fully achieve its purposes, actual and implied, if it strives steadily (albeit discreetly) toward the goal of the fullest practicable participation in policy making and management by all those persons who are responsible for or interested in its performance. This means a great many people, of many kinds and relationships to the agency.

It means officers and board members.

It means all the volunteer workers.

It means the paid executive and his professional staff.

It means, too, the clerical and maintenance staff, down to the maids and yardman (if any).

It means the contributors.

In many cases, too, it means the clients, members, patients, or other users and beneficiaries of the agency. Remember that little girl in the mental hygiene clinic? The staff learned something from her which enabled them to run the clinic more effectively and to help other children better. And surely the benefit which that little girl (and her mother, too) derived from that treatment did many things. It improved the community's regard for the clinic. It stimulated other parents to bring their children for treatment. Perhaps it increased the gifts of money by friends and neighbors to that clinic or to the community chest in which it shared.

The principle of participation is like a golden thread that is woven through all the human relationships of the agency.

And do not forget this, either, if it is a tax-supported agency, a branch of government, in which you are interested: Citizen voters often have a great deal to say, directly or through their elected representatives, about the funds that are appropriated and the ways in which they are spent for health and welfare service.

This principle of shared management applies not merely to the

operation of a single social agency but further to that of community councils of social agencies and of community chests which have been organized in most of our American urban communities to federate social agencies and citizens in co-operative and participative ventures.

You cannot get away from the principle of participation in social agency management. Mark well in the pages to come how it may be applied.

MANAGEMENT BY THE TOTALITY RATHER THAN BY THE MAJORITY. The principle and practice of participation means, obviously, that no social agency can be a one-man or one-woman organization. A social agency is a group activity. Hence one of the tasks of management is not to stop at securing technically excellent service by employees. Rather, management must carry the whole policy-making and operating personnel, as well as the constituency of the organization, along with it in thought and action with and for the community.

This co-operative attitude necessarily implies that opposition to a proposed course of action—by a board member, a committee member, a staff member, or a contributor—is not to be overcome merely by a majority vote or an executive order. The opposition must, if possible, be met by explanation or persuasion until the action taken is that of a thoroughly informed and unified group.

This attitude toward participation means, furthermore, that the person responsible for carrying out such a policy must always be sympathetic with the points of view of others. He must understand the sources of their opinions and be tolerant of their differences, patient with their hesitancies, and willing to concede to the opinions of others when they seem well founded.

Indeed, participative practice really means a deeper relationship than democracy. Democracy implies government by the majority. Participative administration requires that he who administers has a responsibility for more than giving his constituency an opportunity to vote, informing them of his plans, and securing acquiescence of a majority in these plans.

Participative administration means a continuous endeavor to create new group ideas out of the old separate ideas of individuals. These newly erected group ideas will represent, as far as possible, the informed opinion of all persons who are members of the group. The group ideas will be willingly approved because they have been mutually created through shared thought and discussion. Participa-

tive management is often slower in obtaining immediate results than is autocracy or mere "majoritocracy." Happily, though, participation is surer and more permanent in the long run than are the other methods. What we have shared in making becomes a part of us.

To carry out a philosophy of participation in practice is not easy. Many people are self-assertive and wish to dominate rather than to share in decisions. Many people are impatient of the slow processes of group decision through discussion. Others are not mentally alert, or they do not wish to share in the responsibility of making decisions. Others are the emotional slaves of special interests and are not willing to concede to the general good. Such difficulties, however, merely emphasize the importance of the participative method in management. Indeed, the social agency thus operated is a little school of democracy. It can be an important factor in teaching these essentials, for application to larger areas of government and life.

SOME EXAMPLES OF MISMANAGEMENT AND MALADMINISTRATION: The idea of participation by all concerned in management is, in very truth, a counsel of perfection not often considered in the management of social agencies. Even when adopted in principle, it is but imperfectly practiced. Social work knows many one-man organizations. A hospital may practically be run by a long-lived president. A children's agency may be operated as the monopolized expression of a domineering veteran superintendent. A social settlement may be conducted in a magnificently paternalistic way by a dazzling head resident.

Some lady boards of managers still have their "matron" wait outside the door while they deliberate and then tell the alleged executive what it expects her to do. On the other hand, some boards of directors still are dominated by revered executives who expect all their proposals to be rubber-stamped, or who offer resignation whenever they are crossed. (We know one of these executives who resigned once too often. His resignation was accepted.)

Not a few self-perpetuating social agencies make benevolent gestures of inviting contributors to annual meetings through vague semi-public announcements. These agencies really hope that none will come and that if any by chance do attend they will approve—as they always do—the completely predigested proposals for program and officers which are steam-rollered through these meetings. In some social agencies the opinion of the employees is never sought by their autocratic executives.

All these examples, however, represent the lingering survival of

an old order of autocracy and paternalism, but this is progressively disappearing from the administration of social work as it is from business and industry.

By increasing application of the participative principle to administration, social work will be able to improve steadily in its everyday job of human service. Moreover, it will make definite progress in its long-time task of getting the whole community to assume responsibility for social problems and for reducing the virulence of those conditions in community life which make social work necessary. Participative democracy in social work is but one phase of that creative sharing of responsibility and action which will some day be the distinctive feature of a co-operative world commonwealth.

QUESTIONS

1. Give examples of autocracy or paternalism in:
   a. Political government.
   b. Industrial management.
   c. Social agencies.
   d. Other fields of human activity.

2. What are the good and the bad features of autocracy or paternalism thus expressed?

3. What examples of participative democracy can you find in these same fields?

4. What are its strengths and weaknesses?

5. How and to what extent would you apply this philosophy of participation, in some agency you know, to:
   a. The board of directors?
   b. The committees?
   c. The professional staff?
   d. The clerical and administrative staff?
   e. The volunteers?
   f. The contributors or members?
   g. The clients of the agency?
   h. Other social agencies?
   i. The community at large?

Chapter III

The Constitution and Bylaws

ORGANIZATION ESSENTIAL TO MODERN LIFE. Organization is one of the fundamental characteristics of modern civilization. The great bulk of the business of our Western world proceeds through corporate endeavor.

Furthermore, almost every adult in America is a member of one or more organizations—church, civic club, chamber of commerce, cultural organization, veterans' organization, fraternal order, professional society, labor union, social club, and so on, to seeming infinity. The number of organizations appears to multiply as individual interests shift from the concerns of family or neighborhood to the infinitely varied, specialized, and attenuated economic and professional affiliations of community, state, nation, and world. Practically all of us, then, are members of organized groups, usually incorporated. We shape them and in turn are shaped by them. Some of us are perhaps best known by the organizations to which we belong. We all know the "professional" college alumnus, who retreats from the frustrations of adult life to attempted recapture of the recalled delights of uninhibited college days!

IMPORTANCE OF ORGANIZATION IN SOCIAL WORK. It is only natural, therefore, that social work should have developed from the neighborly mutual aid of individuals into organized and corporate activity. In a complex urban community the individual is unable to know the needs of his fellow citizens or to call upon the community's resources for meeting those needs. Moreover, his interest, fitful at best, is likely to be deflected quickly into activities other than those of direct and personal philanthropy. It is easy to take a basket to the poor at Christmas but hard to nurse a chronic invalid through the years.

The charitable corporation or social agency, through its diversified staff, can know all the community's resources for human welfare and can evoke those resources to the aid of any individual according

to his needs. A charitable organization may have continuity and permanency. By its unification of the efforts of individuals it prevents duplication and makes possible effective, specialized service. Organization can cope with the intricacy and variety of modern social problems as the lone individual cannot.

The philanthropic or humanitarian organization, with its board of directors, its committee members, its volunteer workers, its paid staff, and its constituency, can develop the benefits of group thinking and of collective action. It can work out a division of responsibility among these groups collectively and individually so that each interested individual may serve according to his ability. It can prevent the "riding of hobbies" to which the enthusiastic, independent worker is susceptible.

It can develop specialized functions, establish permanent and steadily improving standards of service, and follow a continuous progressive policy, independent of the life or death of any individual. It can secure public support and funds impossible for the individual to obtain and can conserve them through the years.

Governmental agencies, as part of a permanent organization, partake of these same values. Still, such agencies are restricted by law and regulation to specific authorities. What we shall say here refers primarily to non-governmental agencies.

IMPORTANCE OF LEGAL INCORPORATION. Social work by an unincorporated committee, though usually better than individual action, is not ordinarily so satisfactory for long-time results as that engaged in by a legally incorporated organization. Corporate organization absolves the members of the corporation from personal liability to pay debts of the organization for which they as individuals or as members of an unincorporated committee would be responsible. Incorporation further gives the social agency legal standing. In the pleasing legal fiction, the agency has a "personality." A corporation may sue and be sued. We hope, however, that neither of these unpleasant exigencies may occur to any of the charitable corporations in which you are interested.

Incorporation gives the organization additional prestige, because legal status denotes permanency and responsibility. Charitable corporations in general are the only kind which can exist in perpetuity and may hold funds and property so long as their original purposes are being reasonably well fulfilled.

In addition, incorporation is important from the standpoint of raising contributions. Ordinarily, individual and corporate gifts, up

to limits seldom reached, are deductible from federal and state income tax returns, but only when the gifts are made to charitable corporations and not to individuals. Charitable corporations, because of their permanence, are preferred above committees as the beneficiaries of bequests.

Unincorporated committees are desirable for temporary or indefinite activities. Surely the social service landscape should not be cluttered up with corporations too hastily established, without regard to permanency of need or to the activities of other established agencies. As already stated, a corporation has great durability. The need for incorporation, therefore, should be carefully considered.

When, however, permanency is legitimately desired, the first step toward the efficient management of an unincorporated agency should be to incorporate the agency. Local charities endorsement committees and better business bureaus, the National Information Bureau, and charitable foundations usually require incorporation of those social agencies which they endorse or aid. Community chests ordinarily make the incorporation of a social agency a prerequisite for membership. Unless an organization is a temporary affair created to meet a transient need, it should by all means be incorporated. In almost every community are to be found a few so-called social agencies which operate merely as committees or individuals. Their incorporation should practically always be required as one evidence of responsible administration.

LAWS OF CHARITABLE OR "NON-PROFIT" INCORPORATION. To discuss here the laws of charitable or "non-profit" corporation would be unprofitable, for they vary from state to state. Every social executive should be familiar with the state laws and local ordinances which affect the organization and activity of social agencies in his community. Further, each agency should have available, in board or committee, one or more competent legal advisers versed in corporation law. The effective social agency should operate within the law and with the law.

It is not necessary to treat here the divers special ways of creating a charitable or non-profit corporation in the various states, the procedure to be followed in amending a corporate charter, or the limitations which may be placed by law on the activities on a non-profit corporation. These constitutional and legal provisions vary from one jurisdiction to another. The best advice for you if you are interested in this is to see a good corporation lawyer. In addition, study for yourself the laws that are applicable. Knowledge of what your

agency may or may not do, and of what public authorities are authorized to do for public and private welfare, may be of great importance to your agency.

CHARTER OR CONSTITUTION AND BYLAWS ESSENTIAL. If an organization is to be incorporated it must have some sort of fundamental law of its own—usually called the "charter," "certificate of incorporation," "constitution" and "bylaws"—for the conduct of its business. In some states the charter serves as the constitution. For convenience, the term "constitution" will be used here to indicate the skeleton or fundamental law of the organization and the term "bylaws" to indicate the details or rules. The constitution and bylaws provide the framework for the operation of the organization. They state the relationship of the board, the executive officer, the staff, and the members to each other and provide a legal basis for the activities of the organization.

If the agency is already incorporated, it may well examine its constitution and bylaws to see whether they are adequate to carry on its work. Many social agencies operate under antiquated regulations which are cumbersome and impede rather than aid the agency's work. They sometimes actually prevent the agency from making highly desirable changes in procedures. The constitution and bylaws should be checked, perhaps once a year, to see if they correspond to the best thought and practice in the field and to the situation in the community. They should be dynamic, not static!

It is well to remember that the same process must be followed in amending a charter as in setting up a new corporation. We recently observed an important agency which vitally amended its charter but waited for three years before filing the amended charter with the secretary of state and securing his certificate of approval. Much trouble could have been created in those three years if someone had challenged the acts of the agency during the period when its procedures had been altered but not approved!

RELATION OF CONSTITUTION TO BYLAWS. In general, the constitution should be brief. It should state only the fundamental elements of name, location, purpose, mode of government, and means of amendment. The constitution usually has to be filed with the court, the secretary of state, or some other legal personage. Some legal action as a rule is necessary to change the constitution.

On the other hand, the bylaws should contain the details of organization and operation which are not delegated to administrative decision and should provide for easy amendment. This process should be so simple as to enable an agency to meet readily the chang-

ing requirements of effective service. Some social agencies have special committees on the revision of the constitution and bylaws which give more or less continuous consideration to their improvement.

Ordinarily, therefore, the constitution is a brief statement which sets forth the general plan of organization. The bylaws, in contrast, give the details by which that plan shall be followed.

IMPORTANCE OF A GOOD LEGAL NAME. The first clause of the constitution usually states the legal name of the organization. That name should be clearly stated. It should be used in all the organization's communications and documents. Many agencies are not careful to use their legal names in their publicity and printed matter. Therefore legal difficulties sometimes ensue when philanthropic citizens make bequests or contributions to an agency specified by some other than the official cognomen. The cannily conducted organization will make wide use of its legal name and will have it especially well known among persons who make wills, such as the trust officers of banks, attorneys, and influential citizens. Where there is a will, there may be a bequest—to the properly known social agency!

The nature of the name is important. When possible it should be short enough to be readily used in newspaper headlines, for publicity's sake. The name should be simple, so as to be easily remembered. If the organization is one that depends on popular understanding and support, the very words which make up the name should be in current use. Thus they will have both significance and memory value for even the duller members of the community.

The name, furthermore, should be descriptive of the work of the organization and, if possible, have association value. Obviously the name "Red Cross" is excellent, because it suggests the actual symbol used by the organization, the red cross. That symbol in turn has connotations of healing and of religious faith. The name is simple, made up as it is of only two short words that can readily be used in headlines and be easily remembered.

In many communities the name "Council of Social Agencies" has been discarded. It is too long and too incomprehensible for the mental consumption of the average citizen. Furthermore, the name is not descriptive of the modern council, which includes civic and religious organizations and a cross-section of the citizenry as well as public and private health and welfare agencies. In place of the old name, such an organization has frequently adopted the name "Community Council." This designation has most of the qualifications already given for a good name, plus the added benefit of alliteration.

The emotional values of names are well indicated by such names

as the "Rainbow Hospital for Crippled Children" and "New England Home for Little Wanderers," even though they are too long for ordinary newspaper headlines. These very names have publicity and financial values.

Not all social agencies are able to popularize their initials throughout the country, as have the Young Men's Christian Association, the Young Women's Christian Association, the Young Men's Hebrew Association, and the United Service Organization of the Second World War. Initials do not always have the same significance to the layman as they do to the philanthropic cognoscenti.

The popularity of initials in reference to the "alphabetical" agencies of government during the recent war period merely indicates that the names were too complex and the agencies too numerous for the layman to remember anything but the initials and the general restriction which their namesake placed on the life of the victim. One may well ask, without expecting an accurate answer, "Where are the initials of yesteryear?"

Naming a charitable organization is just as important as naming a baby. Some charitable organizations in their adult years have suffered as greatly through carrying around cumbersome and incomprehensible names as have certain unhappy citizens under the ludicrous names given them in infancy by thoughtless or foolish parents. It might indeed be well to consider changing the existent names of some badly named organizations. Still, under some circumstances it might be unwise to take this action for fear of arousing resentment in the breasts of persons to whom those names are dear. Consider well the name of your organization.

A CLEAR BUT BROAD STATEMENT OF PURPOSE. Equally important is the statement of the organization's purpose. Even though the name indicates this—and it should—the purpose should be clearly stated in unmistakable terms. Thus the legal powers of the organization may be made definite. At the same time, that purpose should be so broadly stated that in future years the organization may undertake additions to its work or extensions of service without having to go to legal measures to make such changes possible. A good rule to follow in stating the purpose of a social agency or in revising the statement is to list all the activities that the organization might want to carry on in pursuance of its general purpose for several years ahead and then make that statement sufficiently broad to cover those prospective wants.

The New York City Chapter of the American Association of Social

Workers has some ideas on this subject which were expressed in the report of its Committee on Principles in Agency Administration, adopted June 27, 1945:

"The purpose for which an agency is organized should be clearly defined and stated, and designed to meet demonstrated community needs. The agency should also have a statement of its general program and of the method by which the purpose will be carried out. Both statements of purpose and of program should be generally available."

The statement of purpose need not necessarily be long, as witness that of a typical Travelers Aid Society: "The objects of the Society are to provide information, advice, guidance, and protection to travelers who by reason of ignorance, inexperience, illness, infirmity, or other disability are in need of assistance" (a wide enough purpose, surely, for all practical uses).

Purposes, as can readily be seen, make a great deal of difference in the operation of social agencies, just as they do in the operations of individuals. Further, stated purposes may as greatly affect the life history of the corporate individual as they do that of its human prototype. Make your agency's ideals high and its purpose broad. If your organization's wagon is hitched to a star, the framework of the organization may be wide enough to allow the passage of that wagon on its ethereal course.

MEMBERSHIP REQUIREMENTS. After the legal name and purpose have been stated, constitutions of social agencies frequently give the basis of membership in the organization. This is on the manifestly logical presumption that the membership gives the organization its life and existence. The members are the legal voters.

(*a*) *Financial Provisions.* Membership qualifications sometimes are simple, as in organizations which state that every contributor of \$1 or more, or of \$5 or more, shall be considered a member. Such a financial basis of membership usually is intended to stimulate donations.

Many organizations, capitalizing on the fondness of human beings for being members of more or less exclusive groups, provide for various classes of membership based on the amount of the contribution. Thus a \$5 member may be an "active" member, a \$10 member a "contributing" member, a \$25 member a "sustaining" member, a \$100 member a "special" member, and a \$1000 contributor a "life" member. Manifestly part of the financial "game" of the organization under these circumstances would be to lift members from one

classification to another by various devices calculated to appeal to their pride and to their sense of exclusiveness as well as to their sense of the values to be created by increased gifts.

(b) Membership when the Agency Belongs to a Community Chest. Classified financial distinctions in membership usually disappear when organizations join community chests. Membership on a financial basis is no longer important to the agency if its budget is made up from contributions pledged to the community chest and paid through it.

Some organizations insist that they must have paying members even though the community chest finances them. In such cases some chests allow organizations to appeal for memberships on the basis of a nominal sum, say $1 each.

In general, however, the rule in community chests is that, provided they meet the other membership qualifications in the organization (if there are others), those persons shall be considered members who either have designated the organization in their community chest gifts and also given to the chest, or have not given to the community chest but only given direct to the organization.

This rule does not apply to organizations like YMCA's and YWCA's, which may have a membership fee roughly proportioned to the cost of the service rendered to the member.

Several forward-looking organizations, notably local travelers aid societies, under the stimulus of their national organization have entirely dropped the financial requirements for membership when the local society is a member of the community chest, and have built up memberships on the basis of interest. Selected groups of people are invited to become members of the organization on the promise that they will interest themselves in its work, will help to spread the word of its service, and besides will attend perhaps one or two meetings a year. Such members may be kept in touch with the organization by bulletins and by questionnaires on organization policy. This procedure seems valid for social agencies which are members of community chests.

(c) Other Provisions. Sometimes other than financial qualifications are set up for membership. Some organizations, for example, establish more or less rigid religious or other qualifications. As the executive of a health agency has suggested, "In some organizations certain types of individuals would not make good members. For example, quack doctors might use membership in a health agency to promote their standing. The organization should seek members

who would be good for it and for the community." Under such peril, a membership might be controlled by admission only of those persons who are invited to join.

Again, as has just been suggested, membership may be really a payment for the use of privileges such as gymnasiums, clubs, classes, and the like, as in YMCA's. What has previously been said regarding the "supporting" nature of membership does not apply in this case, because the individual member is usually not so much subscribing to the purpose of the organization as paying for service which he expects to receive. Such memberships should be continued, as far as possible, on the basis of the members paying the full cost of the service rendered, even though the organization belongs to a community chest. A contribution to a community chest should not pay for the average individual's membership in an organization of this sort any more than it would pay for his bill in a hospital which happens to be a member of a community chest if he himself could afford to pay for that service.

Another form of membership may consist of participants who are reasonably continuous users of the agency's facilities. For example, the members of the clubs and classes in a social settlement or boys' club might elect one or more representatives to the board of the agency.

THE DIRECTING BOARD. If the membership provides the voters of an organization, the board of directors or trustees usually is the delegate body which administers its affairs. Most constitutions contain some provision regarding the duties, requirements, and mode of election of this group. Some constitutions set up special qualifications for the members of the board of directors—for example, that they must be members in good standing of the organization (although this seems a self-evident qualification). It might be said that the board of directors of a social agency, in terms of the Federal government, combines both the legislative and judicial functions of Congress and of the Supreme Court, whereas the power of carrying out its policies and decisions is delegated to the executive of the agency.

(*a*) *Duties of the Board.* A typical statement of the duties of the directing board is:

> The Board of Trustees shall have general charge and direction of the property and affairs and the execution of the purposes of the corporation and shall fix the salaries of the executive secretary, and no member of any committee shall receive any compensation for his service as such. The Board of Trustees shall have sole authority to make appropriations from

the treasury. In addition, the Board of Trustees shall have power to make rules and regulations relating to the affairs of this corporation and shall fix the terms and conditions of membership of the members.

Sound ideas on the duties, make-up, and operation of a directing board were expressed in the report of the Committee on Principles in Agency Administration of the New York City Chapter of the American Association of Social Workers, already quoted in respect to agency purpose and program:

The board of a social agency is the governing body and is responsible for program formulation and for control of fiscal matters. It should be an active participating body composed of persons representing a variety of appropriate community interests, with background and experience that would assist in furthering the purposes of the organization. It should act as liaison in interpreting the agency and the community to each other. In order to carry out its function effectively the board needs to have a clear understanding of the purpose of the agency. It should maintain a continuing relationship with community chests and councils. Through this and other means the board is responsible for insuring that the agency continues to meet a community need and is operating effectively with other agencies.

The powers and duties of the board should be clearly defined in the agency's bylaws. Members and officers of the board should be selected on a rotating basis for a specified term of office, and with a limitation on consecutive terms. Meetings should be regular and planned. A method of continuous evaluation of agency programs should be established, for example, through the use of joint board and staff, and community participation.

The agency board is responsible for the selection of the agency executive to whom it delegates full responsibility for the administration of the agency's program, within a budget adopted by the board, including responsibility for the selection, direction, and release of staff and responsibility for the administration of personnel policies as determined by the board. The executive should actively participate in board meetings and in general planning, and should be present at all board meetings as a non-voting member. It is good practice for a board to consider the executive's performance annually. The board should provide channels through which the staff are encouraged to contribute their technical knowledge and experience to policy formulation, and should establish appeals machinery on personnel matters.

We shall not here discuss directing boards of public welfare agencies or differentiate between administrative and ordinary public boards. The subject has been adequately covered in our book *The Public Welfare Administrator*.[1] Nor shall we discuss the responsibilities and methods of appointment of board members by members

[1] New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1940.

of a religious hierarchy or other authoritarian body for its branches. Our purpose is to describe the administrative board of the private social agency which has a specified membership or constitution and a more or less democratic origin and procedure.

(*b*) *Size of the Board.* The constitution (or bylaws, as the law of the state may prescribe) usually provides for the size of the board of directors of an organization. The board should not be so small in number that representative opinion will be impossible, nor yet so large that discussion will be unduly difficult. From fifteen to thirty members is considered about the right size for most social agency boards. If the number is larger, as is sometimes necessary to secure representation of co-operating groups or of various elements in the community, it is wise to provide for a relatively small executive committee which can hold frequent and more intimate meetings in the intervals between the less frequent and less intimate meetings of the board of directors.

(*c*) *Rotation in Office.* It is now a generally recognized and standard practice for social agency boards that members may be elected to serve for a definite period of years but that before being re-elected they must be out of office for at least one year. This prevents the organization from becoming too much the property of one group of people with whom other elements in the community will not cooperate. The arrangement also makes it easy to drop without offense ineffective and uninterested members. The board can be divided into two or three equal parts, with one-half or one-third of the members elected each year. Thus at no time is there any great change in membership, while at all times a majority of the members have had experience in the operation of the organization.

In support and amplification of the above, we submit the following excerpt from *So . . . You Serve on a Board,* published by the Volunteer Placement Bureau of Pasadena, California, in February, 1946:

> How long a board member should serve is a matter of much controversy. The present trend is definitely toward a limited term, as the advantages far outweigh the disadvantages. These should be clearly recognized by every board so that, whatever policy for board member re-election is enacted, safeguards can be maintained to meet the disadvantages.
>
> Advantages of a limited term:
>
> 1. Boards cannot become ingrown.
> 2. More people become acquainted with and interested in the agency.
> 3. New members bring a fresh point of view.
> 4. Non-contributing members can be eliminated.

5. Valuable members can transfer their experience to other fields, thus strengthening the total community program.

6. Community thinking is encouraged, rather than agency isolationism.

7. Domination by a few is minimized.

Disadvantages of a limited term:

1. Loss of officer material.
2. Loss of experts on phases of work.
3. Loss of continuity.

The most widely accepted plan for tenure of board membership is a three-year term allowing one re-election for a second full term. By staggering the terms, two-thirds of the board returns each year. After a year's absence, a former member may be asked to serve again. Valuable members may be invited to remain affiliated with the agency as an associate or advisory member, serving on special committees and advising on specific points.

Some device may be set up so that re-election of every member to a second term is not automatic. It is suggested that at the end of the first term a letter be written to every retiring board member, whether or not he is to be re-elected, thanking him for the services rendered and tactfully saying that he will be missed at the next meeting. At the following meeting, such members as are desired may be elected for a second term. This calls the attention of the indifferent or inadequate board member to the termination of his service on the board. He will often express unwillingness to continue, and thus facilitate the work of the nominating committee in eliminating weak material.

(*d*) *Filling Vacancies.* Constitutions (or bylaws) of social agencies often provide that by a vote of their body the boards of directors may fill vacancies which arise from death or resignation until the next annual meeting of the organization. At that time the membership fills the vacancy in the way prescribed.

Occasionally constitutions contain detailed regulations for the election of board members. It is usually better, however, to make this provision in the bylaws rather than in the constitution. Then procedure readily can be changed if the need arises.

NOMINATION AND ELECTION OF BOARD AND OFFICERS. Many social agencies elect their trustees and officers casually, by haphazard nomination from the floor at the annual meeting or perhaps by nomination at the hands of a committee which is sent out during the course of a meeting to bring in nominations. Such methods, of course, are neither good business nor good administration.

(*a*) *Participation by the Constituency.* The field of prospective candidates for trustees should be carefully canvassed, the best available persons nominated, and their acceptance secured in advance. The whole membership of the organization should be given the

opportunity to vote for those nominated and, if they wish other representatives, to make nominations on their own account. If the principles of participation are to be followed, the members of the organization should certainly be able to influence the make-up of the directing body and of the officers of the organization as completely as they desire.

(*b*) *A Typical Plan of Nomination.* A typical plan of nomination which might be included in the constitution or the bylaws (preferably bylaws) of almost any social agency would prescribe that the president of the organization should appoint a nominating committee, subject to ratification by the board of trustees, at a suitable time in advance of the annual meeting. This nominating committee might be announced in the newspapers or in the official bulletin of the organization. Suggestions for nominations could be invited from members. The nominating committee would consider all such proposals but would make any nominations for the positions to be filled which it thought desirable.

(*c*) *Single or Double Slate.* Some question exists as to whether a nominating committee should on its own account submit more names than there are vacancies to be filled. The constitutions or bylaws of some social agencies require that at least two persons shall be nominated for every vacancy for which there may be a contest. This procedure hardly seems advisable for most agencies; those who are defeated may be offended and may be of less use to the organization in the future because of their injured feelings.

(*d*) *Nomination by Petition.* No matter how many persons are nominated, however, full publicity should be given to the nominations when they are complete. Before the ballots are sent out, an opportunity should be given for any group of members, say twenty-five or more, to make additional written nominations. The names of all nominees should be printed on the ballot. The source of nomination should be clearly indicated. This ballot should be mailed to members from ten days to a week before the annual meeting. A prepaid business reply envelope should be enclosed, so that the member can readily mail in his marked ballot. Ballots should be receivable up to some definite time, say ten o'clock on the morning of the annual meeting.

(*e*) *Ballots and Public Relations.* The ballots can be mailed to the members with the invitations to the annual meeting. Further use may be made of the postage by enclosing descriptive material about the organization or a questionnaire that asks the opinions of

members on some policy. The legal requirement of sending ballots to contributors is a good excuse for sending this publicity material. Its mailing might be criticized as an unnecessary expense if sent in any other form and at any other time. The ballot "takes the curse" off the publicity matter.

If the number of members is large, it may be wise to specify that only those who contribute certain amounts (as, for example, $10.00 or over) shall receive ballots by mail, although contributors of smaller amounts may obtain them by request at headquarters of the organization.

Ballots may also be printed in the newspaper. They may be made even more readily available by distribution to the public at booths in department stores and to employees in business and industry through key men in places of employment, as has been done by the Community Chest of Richmond, Virginia. Technically, ballots received in this way should be checked against the list of contributors to determine eligibility for voting.

(*f*) *Committee of Tellers.* Provision should be made for the appointment by the president of a committee of tellers, to be approved by the board of trustees. This committee should count the ballots and certify the vote at the annual meeting.

The operation of this rather elaborate "model" plan for nomination and election of course, would, usually be a formality, but it does provide a valuable safety valve in case a group of members becomes discontented. Moreover, the very fact that nomination and election are conducted thus publicly often prevents criticism and ill feeling which otherwise might develop. It is true of human nature that people frequently do not wish to exercise the privileges they possess, yet if they do not have those privileges they wish mightily to exercise them. This same attitude is true of participation in the work of social agencies. Some such plan as this, carefully executed with regard to its interpretive value, should be highly serviceable in developing the feeling and actuality of democratic participation in the work of the social agency.

(*g*) *Provision for Holdover.* In order to make sure that the organization does not lose its legal powers because of failure to hold an election at the specified time, the constitution or the bylaws should provide that board members and officers shall hold office until their successors are duly elected and qualified.

OFFICERS OF THE AGENCY. The constitution or the bylaws must prescribe also the duties and responsibilities of officers. Social agency

officers usually are the same as those of any other organization: a president, two or more vice-presidents (sometimes more are chosen to please various interests in the community or elements in the agency's constituency), a treasurer, and a secretary.

Some agencies provide for both a recording and a corresponding secretary. Others rule that the executive officers of the organization (the executive secretary, director, or superintendent) shall serve also as the secretary of the board. It seems wise to have a secretary in addition to the executive officer. Thus a person is always available who can carry on the secretarial functions in intervals, if any, between terms of executive officers. Ordinarily, however, the executive, with his facilities for stenographic service and with the records of the organization in his custody, can perform the secretarial duties better than a board member who has no such resources available. Sometimes the executive writes the minutes, and the secretary, as an elected officer, reads them at the meetings. This procedure may be wise in order to lessen the tendency of the executive toward excessive participation in the meeting and to give the secretary an appropriate share in the proceedings.

One weakness in the writing of the minutes by a volunteer secretary when there is an executive officer available is that often an unduly long period intervenes between the time of the meeting and the secretary's preparation of the minutes. The same objection applies to having a corresponding secretary who carries on the correspondence of the organization apart from the activities either of the secretary or of the executive officer.

Actually there is little need for either a recording secretary or a corresponding secretary in a modern social agency which has a qualified professional executive. Usually he serves as secretary of the board. Arrangement is usually made that the board of directors shall elect the paid executive officer of the organization, by whatever title he is known.

(*a*) *Duties of the Officers.* A typical statement of the duties of the officers of a community chest—and one applicable to many social agencies—is as follows:

The President shall preside at all meetings of the members of the Board of Trustees and of the Executive Committee. He shall also have, exercise, and perform such other powers and duties as may be assigned to him herein or from time to time by the Board of Trustees.

The Vice-Presidents shall have, exercise, and perform such powers and duties as may be assigned to them from time to time by the Board of Trustees. In case of the President's absence, disability, or failure to act,

the Vice-Presidents in turn shall exercise the powers and perform the duties of the President.

The Treasurer shall have charge of the funds of the Community Chest, shall make reports to the Board of Trustees at each of its regular meetings, and shall give bond with approved surety for the faithful performance of his duties in such amount as shall be fixed by the Board of Trustees. The Treasurer shall annually appoint, with the approval of the Executive Committee, an Assistant Treasurer. All disbursements shall be made by check. Checks shall be signed by the Treasurer, or in case of his absence from the city or sickness, by the Assistant Treasurer, or in the absence from the city or sickness of both, then by one of the other officers, and countersigned by the Director or his authorized representative.

The Secretary shall perform the usual duties of secretary at such times as the secretarial services of the Director are not available.

The Director shall be the active executive and administrative officer of the corporation and shall be charged with the direction of its activities and of the measures for the accomplishment of its corporate purposes, subject, however, to the supervision and control of the Board of Trustees and of the Executive Committee. He may, with the approval of the Board of Trustees or the Executive Committee, employ such assistants as he may deem necessary. He shall render an annual report to the Board of Trustees and such other reports as it or the Executive Committee shall from time to time request. He shall co-operate with and furnish information and assistance to all committees of the corporation. The Director shall act as secretary at all meetings of the members of the corporation, the Board of Trustees, and any committee of the corporation. He shall be the custodian of all papers, documents, and records of the corporation and of the seal of the corporation. He shall also have, exercise, and perform such other powers and duties as may be assigned to him herein or from time to time by the Board of Trustees.

(b) Election of Officers. The mode of election of the officers, as well as their duties, is usually prescribed in the constitution or the bylaws. Sometimes election is through ballot by the contributors or members. Generally, however, election is on nomination by a committee appointed by the chairman, which reports at the first meeting of the board of directors after their election. Officers are usually chosen from the board membership. The principles of rotation in office already suggested for the board of directors apply to the officers as well. Some organizations rule against the re-election of officers. Others allow re-election for one term but provide that their officers may not serve for more than two successive terms. That is plenty!

A sound practice is to have a one-year term of office, with the understanding that the officer may be re-elected for one year and for no more. The danger of unduly long duration in office for a

president or a treasurer is that he may become too much the personification of the organization. In consequence members of the board will probably become less and less interested and less and less responsible. These dangers are greater than the disadvantages of training new officers in the duties of the organization. The retiring officer who is really interested will serve in any capacity, even though he is no longer president. Through election to his vacant position the services of other capable citizens can be secured, and other interpreters of the work of the organization can be trained.

Some agencies provide that a president, whose term as officer and as board member have both expired and who cannot be re-elected to the board, shall serve for one additional year as an ex officio member of the board. In that way his experience need not be lost. At the end of that year, he may be eligible again for election to the board and to office.

LEGAL PROVISION FOR MEETINGS. The legal frequency of meetings of the board of directors is also specified by many agencies. A large board, with an executive committee which operates in the interval between meetings, may perhaps need to meet only four or five times a year, if the executive committee is required to meet monthly except in the summer. On the other hand, if the board of directors is a small, working board, it is wise to provide that it shall meet at monthly intervals except in the summer. Special meetings of the board may be called by the president. In some organizations the secretary is required to call meetings on the petition of a specified number of board members.

Meetings should be often enough to maintain contact, infrequent enough not to lose their novelty, and well enough attended, to insure representation and participation. Often one-third of the members of the board is held to be a quorum for doing business. This seems to be a good provision because of the difficulties sometimes experienced in securing attendance in communities where there are many meetings. On the other hand, in some jurisdictions it is legally required that half the members of a board constitute a quorum. You had better find out the legal provision which applies to your community. Then have as small a proportion of the membership constitute a quorum as is legal and consistent with the principle of having enough persons present to arrive at a representative decision.

At least an annual meeting of the voters or members should be included in the scheme of things—for example, in the month of

January, at a date to be fixed by the board of directors. A constitution recently read cannily provides that at meetings of the society nine members present in person or by proxy shall constitute a quorum for the transaction of business. Almost any social agency should be able to get a quorum on that basis. It is to be hoped, however, that no reader will consider nine persons, present in person or by proxy, enough for a satisfactory annual meeting.

CONSTITUTIONAL COMMITTEES. Although the membership delegates to the board the formation of policy, most of the detail work of the agency is done through committees, standing or special. Hence provision for committees is usually made either in the constitution or in the bylaws. The standing committees, for example, might be an executive committee, a budget committee, a finance committee, a public relations committee, a case work committee, or whatever permanent committees are required to carry on the routine business of the organization.

Some constitutions specify that the executive committee shall exercise the powers of the board in the intervals between board meetings, and that its proceedings shall be submitted to the board for approval at its next regular meeting. An executive committee should be small, from seven to fifteen members, since it is to act in place of the larger board of directors.

Special committees, the constitution or the bylaws usually state, may be created on authorization by the board of directors or by the executive committee. These committees, it is understood, shall be dissolved when their work is finished. It is better organization practice to have few standing committees and to create special committees when needed than to have numerous standing committees with nothing to do. Activity is the only excuse for the existence of any committee.

To make sure that the actions of committees are integrated and that the board is reliably informed of their action, constitutions or bylaws generally provide that chairmen of standing committees shall be ex officio (non-voting) members of the board.

OFFICIAL YEAR. A fiscal or official year is usually prescribed in the constitution. There seems to be no uniformity, however, as to the dates when this year begins and ends.

Social agencies which receive appropriations from the Federal government often find it convenient to make their fiscal year correspond with the government's business year, which ends on June 30. In this way these agencies' reports can be made to conform with

those required by the Federal authorities. Social agencies which receive appropriations from states and cities may find it desirable to have their fiscal year correspond with that of the state or city.

On the other hand, the calendar year is a good one for many social agencies, because many people plan their giving on that basis and it may thus be easier to raise money in accordance with this than on some other basis. Community chests and their member agencies usually follow the calendar year. Most chest campaigns are in the autumn. Budgets made at that time conveniently become effective at the beginning of the new year. The chest usually requests its member agencies to put their fiscal year on a uniform basis for ease in preparing budgets and making financial reports.

Again, in many social agencies, such as social settlements, activities run in a cycle which begins with October first. In those agencies the fiscal year may well correspond to the cycle of operation.

A minor difficulty in respect to having the fiscal year correspond to the calendar year is that many social agencies depend on accounting firms for services which are rendered free or at cost, and the auditors may have a great deal of trouble in harmonizing the agency's wish to get an audited financial report in time for its annual meeting—which probably is early in the calendar year—with the demands of their paying clients, who want to close their books on December 31 or to devote the first part of the year to the preparation of income tax reports due on March 15. A good plan in such a situation is to let the volunteer auditors do their work for the agency whenever they conveniently can. The agency then can publish the audited statement when it is ready, but in the meantime a more or less informal treasurer's report can be presented at the annual meeting with the explanation that an audited accounting will be available later. With such an arrangement it might be possible for the auditors to do this work at odd times during the year; they might, for instance, work on the accounts for the first six months of the year in the summer when their work is slack, and do the remainder in the spring when their winter's rush is over.

As a matter of fact, except for the statement of assets and liabilities and of profit and loss—which may differ at various times in the year—it does not make much difference what fiscal year is adopted for a social agency. If the agency prepares monthly financial reports it should be able to determine on any twelve successive units which seems desirable. A sound principle to follow is to decide what fiscal year will be best from all points of view and then choose it. Do not

adopt the calendar year merely because it seems the conventional thing to do. The fiscal year, like every other part of the plan of the organization embodied in the constitution and bylaws, should be carefully thought out in terms of the specific social agency and its community.

AMENDMENT MADE EASY BUT NOT TOO EASY. As a final clause in the constitution there is usually a provision for amendment, unless the basic law of the state covers this point. Amendment should not be made too easy, lest hasty action be "put over" by an enthusiast with some pet hobby who catches the organization unawares and overturns its fundamental laws before the membership knows what is happening.

It is prudent to require that a proposed amendment be discussed at the meeting of the board of directors immediately previous to that at which action is taken, and that it shall be sent in writing to the members of the board, together with notice of the meeting, ten days before the meeting at which final action is taken. Under such circumstances a majority vote should be sufficient. Some social agencies, however, have thought it wise to provide that amendments shall require a two-thirds vote of those present. Ordinarily, if the need for the amendment is clear and the proposal is thoroughly explained, this safeguard would seem to be unnecessary. On the other hand, there have been instances where cliques have tried to "railroad" proposals through the board of a social agency exactly as propositions are said sometimes to be railroaded through legislative bodies. Adequate safeguards can do no harm, and they may save a great deal of difficulty. The social agency has an important responsibility to its contributors, to its clients, and to the community. A change in the way in which that responsibility is handled should be made only after thorough consideration and as the result of a group decision in which the largest possible number of board members have participated and to which they all, if possible, agree. Speedy, ill-considered amendment should be made difficult; thoughtful, well-considered amendment should be made easy.

If state law or the principle of participation requires that the constitution or charter be amended by vote of a certain proportion of the voting membership of the agency, care should be taken that the membership is of such a number and so accessible that a quorum can be assembled without undue difficulty.

BYLAWS FOR FLEXIBILE PROVISIONS. The desirability of making it difficult to amend the constitution is the reason for the usual prac-

tice of social agencies, in framing their fundamental laws, to put a large part of the regulations into the bylaws. These can usually be amended much more readily than can the constitution. In a sense they are explanations, elaborations, and detailed arrangements for the application of the constitution.

MEMBERSHIP AND THE BYLAWS. A statement of the qualifications for membership in the organization may be relegated by the constitution to the bylaws, so that from time to time these requirements may be readily changed. Similarly, those qualifications which have already been mentioned as appearing in the constitution may be put in the bylaws.

DETAILS OF MEETINGS IN THE BYLAWS. The bylaws may give details of the way in which the annual meeting shall be called or in which trustees and officers shall be nominated and elected. The bylaws should also specify the kind of notice required for meetings of different bodies. For some groups newspaper publicity is sufficient. On the other hand, to make sure that each person has ample notice, written notification by mail at least one week in advance is often required for the meetings of all important boards and committees.

FINANCIAL DETAILS. Again, the bylaws may specify methods of handling funds and signing checks. It may be wise to provide that the treasurer shall sign all checks and that the director or executive secretary shall countersign all checks. Provision should be made for the appointment of an assistant treasurer to sign checks in the absence of the treasurer, and for signature by the assistant director if the director is unable to sign; also, failing these two additional resources, there should be provision for the signing of checks by any two elected officers of the organization. This requirement of signature and countersignature is a valuable safeguard. It helps to build public confidence in the care with which the organization handles its funds. Signatures of all the persons who are authorized to sign checks, as well as copies of the minutes or of the clause in the bylaws which authorizes them to sign, must be filed with the bank or banks upon which checks are drawn.

If it is undesirable for officers to take the time to sign numerous small checks, the bylaws may provide for a pay roll and petty cash account on which the bonded executive may draw checks of limited amount for budgetary purposes. The account can be set up and reimbursed monthly by regular checks of the agency. It should be subject to audit and should be included in the regular financial reports of the agency.

COMMITTEE DETAIL COVERED IN BYLAWS. Committees may be given further consideration in the bylaws. The frequency of meetings may be specified, as well as the mode of appointment of committee members. It is well to provide in either the constitution or the bylaws that the personnel and action of all committees of the organization shall be subject to the general control and supervision of the board of trustees, for the board is manifestly the seat of all authority in the organization.

BYLAWS AS A CATCHALL. The bylaws, as a sort of catchall for the regulations of the organization, may also include requirements for the auditing of accounts. The bylaws may provide, too, for the bonding of the treasurer and other persons who sign checks or handle money—not through doubt of their honesty but as an extra protection and a means of increasing public confidence. They may provide for an official seal for the organization. They may also provide for a limitation (say, $500) upon the amount of debts which any committee or officer may contract without the approval of the board of directors. They may provide for a headquarters in which records shall be kept and business transacted. Any other matters subject to change which it seems unwise to include within the more rigorous confines of the constitution rightfully belong in the bylaws.

Amendment of the bylaws, as has been suggested, usually is easier than that of the constitution. Bylaw amendment may be made on written notice of the proposed change mailed to the members of the board of directors at least five days before the meeting at which action is to be taken. Either a regular or special meeting will do. Action may be taken by a majority of those present rather than by a two-thirds majority.

INTERPRETATION OF THE BYLAWS. It may be wise, further, to provide in the bylaws that authority to interpret and to construe them shall be vested in the board of directors, so that there will be no question as to ultimate authority. In this respect the board of directors is seen emerging from the status of a legislative body to that of a supreme court, binding the staff and all committees by its interpretation as well as by its legislation.

These, then, are some of the considerations which go into building the constitution and bylaws as the framework of the organization. This framework, thoughtfully planned, carefully adapted to the needs to be met, corrected after study of the constitution and bylaws of similar organizations, or, if out of date, modified to meet

modern conditions, will serve well to facilitate the human service of the social agency.

QUESTIONS

1. Make a list of all the corporations to which you belong or with which you do business.

2. How do you think the effectiveness of each compares with what it would be if the functions were carried on by individuals or committees?

3. What instance can you give of the advantage of organized over individual effort in social work?

4. What evidence can you show of the advantage of charitable corporations over committees, or vice versa, and what are the reasons for these advantages?

5. If your community has a community chest, a better business bureau, or a charities endorsement committee, what is its requirement regarding incorporation of member agencies or endorsed charities?

6. What are the laws regarding incorporation of charities in your state? in your city? in your nation?

7. Compare the constitution and bylaws of some social agency with which you are familiar with the discussion in this chapter, and see how you think they could be improved.

8. How do you think the proposals in this chapter might be improved?

9. How does the constitution studied compare in length and content with the bylaws?

10. What improvement, if any, could be made in your sample constitution and bylaws in regard to:
    a. Name?
    b. Purpose?
    c. Membership requirements?
    d. Duties of directors?
    e. Mode of selecting directors?
    f. Size of the board?
    g. Rotation in office?
    h. Duties of officers?
    i. Their nomination and election?
    j. Legal meetings?
    k. Quorum?
    l. Committees?
    m. Official year?
    n. Financial procedure?
    o. Amendment?

Chapter IV

The Board of Directors—a Vital Force

ESSENTIAL TO THE AGENCY'S OPERATION. More should be said regarding the board of directors than the passing mention in the previous chapter's discussion of the constitution and bylaws. As we said before, we shall not discuss the variation in administrative auspices which exist in private social agencies which are branches or under the authority of national agencies or of religious bodies and which have advisory boards with little real power. Neither can we go into detail on the administrative or advisory boards of public health or welfare agencies appointed by governmental authority. Yet the principles and practices which are discussed in this chapter may be of some value to these boards as well as to the boards of private agencies elected in accordance with the constitution and bylaws of the agency.

The board of directors, as we shall discuss it, is the legislative and judicial body of the social agency. More than that, however, it is the body responsible for continuous policy and for steady progress through the periods of changing executives, staffs, and conditions of life. The board of directors is the one essential of the standard private social agency. The agency may operate without an executive or staff through delegation of responsibility to volunteer workers, or without an executive through committees or through volunteer supervision of paid staff members; but it must have an active and responsible board of directors if it is long to continue.

FUNCTIONS OF THE BOARD. Much therefore depends on this body. It is entrusted by the agency's "electorate" with the responsiblity of carrying on the legal life of the organization. The duties and uses of the board of directors are far more varied and more extensive than are usually stated in the terse language of the constitution.

(*a*) *Interpretation.* Thus the board has the duty of interpreting the needs and the service of the agency to the community through the community contacts of the individual board members. One

board member may be a member of the Rotary Club and have the opportunity of speaking to his fellows about the work of the agency at the club's weekly luncheon meeting. Another may bring up some phase of the organization's activities at a meeting of the vestry of his church. Yet another, at a dinner party in his own home, may talk to his guests about the excellent service which the agency is rendering.

(*b*) *Securing Financial Support.* Board members are further responsible for securing financial and moral support for their social agency. If the agency is a member of a community chest, the board members should work in the joint campaign or give other service to carry through the chest's financial and community service program. They may help, by letter or personal contact, in the collection of pledges on which payments are overdue.

If the agency is not a member of a community chest, the board will secure the leadership necessary for financial campaigns or other money-raising procedures, and its members will serve according to their abilities. No board worth the name will put the responsibility of money raising on the executive. The executive's work should be to carry out the financial policies and programs as agreed on by the board with his advice. The board members should be responsible for organizing or carrying through the money-raising endeavors, with appropriate staff help.

(*c*) *Volunteer Service.* Board members in many social agencies also give volunteer service in collaboration with the trained staff. Because of this duty, a well-conducted social agency should keep a card list of the abilities and interests of its board members and should call upon them for the various kinds of service for which they are specially adapted. One board member who is an advertising man may be asked to write a descriptive leaflet. A physician may help with a difficult case that entails medical problems. Many social agencies are so organized that all the board members serve on committees. It is well so to distribute the load of committee service that no board member serves on more than one standing committee. Board members may, of course, be drafted at any time for special committee service.

(*d*) *Representative of the Agency.* Board members may also help to enlist persons who are desired as new officers, board members, or committee members. A member of the board may serve as a representative of the organization in conferences with other social agencies, in the case conferences of the agency to discuss difficult human problems, on committees of a community council of social agencies,

or as official delegates to that council. Board members can often be useful in developing an effective relationship with public officials with whom they have special acquaintance and connections. Further, board members may render effective service as speakers and may represent the organization on public occasions.

(*e*) *Effective Activity in Board Meetings.* A primary responsibility of a board member is to share actively in the meetings of the board. To contribute his point of view fully and fairly, he must keep well informed on the work of the organization, either through his own initiative or through that of the executive. An alert executive will furnish to his board members pertinent material such as magazines, books, clippings, and invitations to attend meetings of educational value. The board member manifestly must be well informed and forward-looking so that he may aid in the progress of the social agency.

THE BOARD AS MAKER OF LAWS AND POLICIES. As members of a legislative and policy-making body, the trustees or directors are responsible for acting on the yearly budget of the organization, for determining the general service program of the agency, and for proper administration of its funds and property. In general, the board is responsible for all functions which are not otherwise delegated to committees or to the executive and the staff. A good executive or president will see that the amount of detailed responsibility which the board carries is increased as it acquires skill and willingness to handle problems of administration and service.

JOB OF THE BOARD MEMBER. An excellent summary of "The Job of the Board Member" is found in *So—You Serve on a Board,* prepared in February, 1946, by the Volunteer Placement Bureau of Pasadena, California:

Briefly, the basic requirements for the job of board membership are:

1. A sincere conviction that the agency performs a useful public service.
2. A concern with the agency's place in the over-all community program.
3. A sense of financial responsibility for the wise spending of donated funds.

These requirements so simply stated become a definite challenge when analyzed and expanded. The conscientious board member seeks to develop them within himself and through this development strengthens his contribution to the agency's service.

1. Maintaining a useful public service.

This calls for constant study of the field within which the agency functions, and an understanding of the professional, administrative, and

psychological problems involved. Such study invites a continuing appraisal of the accomplishment of the agency in the light of changing community needs and national trends.

Every board member recognizes that the quality of service rendered must rest primarily with the executive. His training, skill, personality, and selection of staff determine the usefulness of the work performed. The reponsibility for securing an executive with these qualifications is shared by each board member. . . .

The working relationship of board members and staff is important. A clear understanding of the proper functions of each leads to a happy working together. The board is responsible for the broad plans and policies that govern the agency and delegates their execution to the executive unless properly assigned to a committee.

2. Concern with the agency's place in the community.

While a standing public relations committee is advisable for a sustained, integrated program, each board member is automatically involved in the relationship of the agency with the community. He is concerned with his agency as it is related to other agencies and as it is accepted and understood by the individuals in the community.

In the first instance, he is eager to exchange information about policies and methods with other agencies, to understand their programs, and to ascertain that his agency co-operates to the fullest extent with other organizations. In other words, he will avoid agency isolationism.

As a public interpreter, the board member represents his agency to the community, and his community to the staff and board of the agency. This representation calls for balance, not bias. Armed with accurate information, he seeks opportunities to explain to the public the problems and services of the agency, to correct false impression, and to bring to the staff and board criticisms that justify attention.

3. Financial responsibility.

A private agency is financed by donated funds, whether from the community chest, membership drives, or endowment. The wise and economical use of these funds is a serious charge. The agency budget, while prepared by a committee, should be considered and understood by the total board and any deviation made subject to board approval. While there will always be some members of the board with a clearer conception than others of financial figures, each member should recognize his responsibility and endeavor to have a clear picture of his agency's financial position.

It is the job of every board member to play some part in the raising of the funds for his agency. Only through such participation can he test the community support and appreciate the responsibility of expending the funds.

Some of these points we shall amplify in later paragraphs of this chapter.

MUTUAL RELATIONSHIP OF BOARD AND EXECUTIVE. Board members are of course responsible for selecting the executive and for making

sure, by observation of his work and consideration of his reports, that the policies of the organization are being carried out.

(*a*) *Clearinghouse for Ideas.* The executive should not, however, merely regard the board as the legislative and policy-making body of the organization and as a source of unpaid service in the agency's program. Instead, he should use the board as a clearinghouse and testing place for his ideas. The board can apply the acid test of reality to his rosy schemes too deeply tinctured with the coloration of his professional training and interest. By this corrective of board action, the work of the organization, while maintaining its professional quality, can yet be held to common sense and practicality. If the executive cannot "sell" his board on the desirability of a given project, he can hardly expect to be able to persuade the community of its feasibility. The board may thus be considered as a form of safety valve which prevents a too violent or premature application of the executive's steamy ideas. Rather, through participative discussion of the executive's proposals, the board brings out the most thoroughgoing and well-rounded development of all the projects and policies of the organization.

(*b*) *Guide to the Executive.* The executive within his many duties includes service as a guide to the organization. In turn, the board is a guide to the executive. It helps him to direct activity along serviceable lines. It advises him, protects him, strengthens him, and backs him up when necessary. Manifestly an intelligent executive will appreciate the value of a group which will give consideration to the projects for the planning and execution of which he is employed. He will gracefully acquiesce in group decisions when they are made after full and fair discussion. He will know when to withdraw projects for later consideration. He will not consider it necessary for his success that every project he proposes shall be unanimously approved by the board. The very principle of group discussion and participation means that ideas, as originally proposed, will be altered in final adoption. The executive should welcome an opportunity for the application of the common sense and experience of his board to the propositions he makes and to the problems he presents.

By virtue of his professional experience and the full time and thought which he gives to the work of the organization, the executive should be a leader and inspirer of his board and an initiator of policies. Yet, on the other hand, he should welcome proposals and

suggestions from his board members and officers. A wise executive will know much about the interests and hobbies of his board members. He will try to call on them individually, discuss with them the work of the organization, and get their suggestions for its improvement. He will have in mind the prejudices and "blind spots" of board members and will attempt to inform them, in advance of board meetings, about subjects which require special interpretation. Yet he will not "play politics," endeavor to secure acquiescence in a proposal merely because he favors it, or try to "put over" a project which he fears may not survive free discussion.

(*c*) *Creator of Ideas.* An active and energetic executive will endeavor in his thinking to keep a jump or two ahead of his board. Yet he should be pleased if a board member also has done some thinking and suggests a project which he believes might help to advance the work of the agency.

"A board must not let the executive get the idea that the social agency is the property of the executive," warns C. Whit Pfeiffer, Executive Secretary of the Welfare Council of Metropolitan Los Angeles. "While he must have authority commensurate with responsibility, the final authority rests with his board."

Howard S. Braucher, President of the National Recreation Association, makes the important point that "the executive should be careful to abide by the spirit as well as by the letter of board legislation. Board members should adopt general principles but allow a certain amount of leeway in carrying out these principles."

(*d*) *Loyalty of Executive to Board Policies.* Although the executive is responsible for carrying out the policies of his organization, he must consider whether he can be loyal to those policies. If he finds this impossible, it is his duty to resign. Such drastic action should be taken only after he has presented his views to the board and has given it a chance to work out with him a mutually satisfactory modification of policy. Ordinarily a resignation under such circumstances is evidence of the executive's lack of ability as an interpreter and leader rather than of the stubbornness of the board. Generally the board collectively will have a better sense of community situations than does the executive. He had better heed their advice. Sometimes, however, the board and the executive are mutually incompatible. They just cannot get along together. This may be especially true in public agencies, where the board is elected or appointed by authority outside the agency. Then the executive will be happier and more

effective if he resigns and seeks other fields of usefulness. It is manifest, however, that on minor matters of policy he must carry out the wishes of the board even though they do not agree with his own ideas on the subject. An officer is obligated to execute the decisions of his legislature even though he does not entirely approve them.

If the executive disagrees with his board, he will not express his disagreement publicly so long as he is employed by the agency. Fights should be kept in the family. Even if he resigns, he should not couch his resignation for publication in such a way as to harm the services of the agency. If serious abuse exists, he may attack it publicly when he no longer is an employee of the agency. He should remember, however, that board members are usually fairly prominent citizens and that their words carry a good deal of weight. Before he starts a public controversy, he had better be sure that he can carry it through and can thereby benefit the human service of the agency.

(e) Patience and Persistence Win—When Right. Rather than resign, unless the situation is untenable or unsatisfactory, the executive should practice the virtue of patience and persistence. The idea spurned today may be adopted enthusiastically next month or next year. Right will prevail in the long run. Besides, the executive may have been wrong.

Generally he should be able to secure a reasonable degree of acquiescence to his projects by virtue of the depth of his knowledge, the cogency of his argument, and the forcefulness of his presentation. He should be expected to attend all meetings. He should be regarded as an equal with the board members in participation in discussion, and he should be respected for his personal capacity and for his professional competence. Yet, as a matter of wisdom, he should give ample opportunity for discussion and should enter it only when called upon or when he sees that a word from him is necessary to avert serious mistakes. The board does not want to be a rubber stamp, inked on the executive pad.

(f) Executive neither Officer nor Board Member. On the other hand, it is equally improper for the executive to be also the president of the organization and to conduct the meetings of the agency. Such a practice is a denial of the principles both of lay leadership and of disinterestedness which must be followed in social agencies.

Further, the executive should not be a member of the board, for the obvious reason that he should not be allowed to vote on policies that may affect his own salary or his own working conditions. If he is competent, he does not need a vote to secure acceptance of desir-

able measures. If he is not competent, his vote would merely add to the unhappy results of his inadequacy.

Social work does not follow the example of corporate business in which the salaried manager frequently is also the president or the chairman of the board. Control in social work is not based upon control of stock or upon the dominance of the motive of profit. Social agency controls flow from the principle of developing the largest possible participation of the lay members of the community in social work and of promoting their responsibility as a voluntarily serving group of individuals.

As a matter of good participative practice, discussion should be carried as far as is necessary to secure practically unanimous approval by the board of the action taken. A majority of one vote is not enough to decide most social agency questions. The executive's vote should not be decisive, and therefore it is not necessary or desirable. Although we have worked as executive with administrative boards for over thirty years, we cannot recollect a time when we wished we had had a vote; or when our vote, if cast, would have changed a decision.

RELATION OF BOARD TO STAFF. The board is responsible for the selection of the executive and for working with him in the management of the organization. It should determine, on the recommendation of the executive, the number of persons to be employed, the duties of each position on the staff, the qualifications of the persons to fill those positions, and the salaries to be paid.

(*a*) *No Interference in Management.* On the other hand, the board should not interfere in management. It should leave the executive free to employ and to discharge staff members within the limitations of his budget. The executive should expect that all orders are to be given by him and not by board members. He cannot control employment and direct his staff if he suffers interference from the board. He may consider it desirable to consult with the board regarding the persons whom he considers employing, for the sake of getting the benefit of the experience of board members and of having their advice regarding the discharge of an unsatisfactory worker. Indeed, in some agencies personnel committees have been established. They advise with the executive on personnel matters and make recommendations to the board in respect to the principles which are to be followed.

If the employees have formed a union, as in some communities, the personnel committee would work on the detail of union con-

tracts, in conference with the executive and the union representatives. The union contract, of course, would have to be approved by the board.

(*b*) *Share in Management by Staff.* Despite this necessity for concentrated responsibility, the board and the executive will find it worth while to give staff members a voice in the management of the organization. That procedure is only good participative technique. For example, a wise executive will discuss all policies with qualified members of his staff before he presents the proposals to the board, and he will secure the staff's agreement in general as to what those policies should be. He will thus be benefited by the thought and experience of his staff. Further, he will have its interested and active co-operation in the administration of those policies if they are adopted.

(*c*) *Attendance of Staff Members at Board Meetings.* Many boards and executives think it wise to have qualified staff members attend board meetings. These staff members may present and discuss matters with which they are especially conversant. They also will gain a knowledge of the factors involved in board decisions which particularly affect them. Some executives have their responsible assistants attend all meetings of the board of directors. This practice is good for the board, which thus becomes acquainted with the point of view of the staff members. The practice is good for the assistants, too. It gives them experience in the conduct of board meetings and a feeling of added self-respect because of the recognition which is given their work. It is also good for the executive, for his competence may be partially judged by the competence of his staff. No executive worth the name will feel that his prestige or importance is diminished if staff members are allowed to meet with the board. On the other hand, an able staff member is usually an evidence of a good executive. "By his fruits shall ye know him!"

MAKE-UP OF THE BOARD. The make-up of the board of directors is quite as important as are its responsibilities and functions. Although the constitution and bylaws usually prescribe the board's size and the mode of appointment, important considerations of policy enter into the election of its members.

(*a*) *Wealth not Necessary in Chest Agencies.* Many social agencies have thought it necessary to get some men and women of means on their boards in order to entice these people to contribute, yet, this scheme is not necessary when the agency is a member of a com-

munity chest. The chest, with the co-operation of the agencies, raises the money with which the agencies do their work. A person of wealth, therefore, should be chosen only if he will contribute something in the way of judgment, service, or prestige to the organization.

(*b*) *Congeniality*. In some social agencies it is thought desirable that the members of the board be socially agreeable and congenial one to another. This may be a wise precaution with some social agencies of the old-fashioned aristocratic type.

(*c*) *More Vital Board Qualifications*. Yet, in general, agencies which have serious work to do in the community will ordinarily employ other considerations. It is manifest that members of the board should have vision and social intelligence. Persons who are invited to serve on the board should be truly interested in the work of the agency. They should accept service before they are officially nominated or elected. They should be people who can work together without bickering. They should represent various viewpoints and wholesome differences of opinion. Open-mindedness is more important than agreement.

(*d*) *Diversity of Interest and Age*. Board members should represent various elements in the contributing or service constituency of the organization. A social agency which works among the foreign-born might well include members of the foreign groups it serves. An agency to which all elements in the community contribute should have on its board individuals who represent the points of view of those elements—political, religious, social and economic, racial and geographical. As suggested earlier, an agency which serves a fairly stable and competent group of clients, such as a social settlement, might include representatives of its service constituency. YWCA's often have on their boards representatives of the young industrial and business women whom the organization serves. An agency that is non-sectarian in service might have members of the principal religious groups of the community upon its board. Another organization which seeks to secure widespread help and co-operation from employees of industries in which organized labor is strong might include on the board representatives of labor unions as well as of other interests, such as management. Thus the interests of these groups can be considered in working out the policies of the organization, and the board members in turn can interpret those interests to the groups which they represent.

Boards should include diversity of age as well as of interest. Many boards have much too high an average age. Maturity is necessary. So, too, are youth and enterprise. The board should have the prestige and experience of those who have "arrived," but it should also have some "comers" who are on their way up in community life and may be trained to take increasing responsibility.

(*e*) *Suggestions of Experienced Executives.* A number of experienced executives have suggested qualifications for board members, as follows:

> We try to keep our group co-ordinated in selecting board members, but not exclusively so. We always have some small representation of unpopular groups and holders of unpopular viewpoints to give a little jar and let in some fresh air now and then.
>
> Certain board members should "understudy" for others who hold responsible positions of leadership on the board. A probable "line of ascent" is worked out for the position of president and for the chairmanships of important committees. The nominating committee charts the possibilities for three years ahead. A relation is maintained between the number of those who expect to give a great deal of time to committee work and that of those who cannot do this but can attend board meetings. Attention is paid to the representation of various outstanding groups in the community. Continuity of service in the nominating committee guards against any undue break in the line of reasoning.
>
> Some interlocking among the members of boards in the same community helps to promote understanding and co-operation.
>
> Co-ordinate as many as possible of the factors of community resources in terms of members having specific background and experience that bear in and focus upon the particular work of the agency.

Other qualifications for board membership which have been suggested by various authorities are: understanding of the problem of the organization; intelligence; power to influence public opinion; readiness to give time; desire for the work to advance; possession of the confidence of the community; ability to think of themselves as individuals rather than as representing particular groups; ability to give special service along specific lines of the organization's activities; strength in the community, both actual and potential; ability to give and take in discussion; co-operativeness within the board and in its attitude toward other social agencies; possession of an inquiring attitude on all questions; and willingness to learn the work of the agency.

SHOULD SOCIAL WORKERS SERVE ON RIVAL BOARDS? Although board members as far as possible should represent all those interests which

may strengthen the work of the agency, some question exists as to whether professional social workers should serve on the boards of agencies other than those which employ them. It is quite true that many leaders of social work have been active on the boards of agencies in the past. However, with the development of community chests and councils, it is probably wiser in general for the social work executive to make his influence felt through the committees of the community chest and council. There he can discuss social questions and promote standards of social work in collaboration with other social workers and with laymen.

Some disadvantages, for example, might appear if the community chest was short of funds for the development of new work. An executive might in behalf of his own agency argue valiantly for additional funds needed for his work, yet as a board member of another agency he might feel that if additional funds were granted to it his own might be less likely to secure additional funds. Thus he might quite sincerely oppose expansion of an agency of which he was a board member, while encouraging it in the case of an agency for the management of which he was responsible as an executive. Then, too, it is generally unwise to put one executive in a position of power over another of equal status in another agency.

It therefore seems a good plan for the average executive or social worker to confine his official relationships to the organization which employs him. As its representative he can make his influence felt through the co-operative activities in which it participates. This principle, of course, does not prohibit his serving as a member of the boards or committees of organizations which are not social agencies.

TASK OF THE NOMINATING COMMITTEE. The nominating committee, as has been suggested, plays an important part in the selection of the board of directors. The committee usually is appointed by the president or elected by the board. Sometimes nominating committees are elected at the annual meeting and serve throughout the year, studying possible board personnel and presenting nominations if vacancies occur during the year.

Whether for interim vacancies or for annual election, the committee should select for nomination those persons who not only will co-ordinate with others in the group but also will have something distinctive to contribute to the work of the society. If the committee does not serve as a year-round committee on board and committee personnel, it should begin its work two or three months before the

annual meeting. In that way it can make careful selection and secure acceptances of nomination from the best available candidates.

(*a*) *Discreet Aid from the Executive.* A valuable aid to the work of the nominating committee in suggesting board members may be found in the executive. He may find it desirable, as may the president, to attend the meetings of this committee and to aid in their consideration of candidates for the positions to be filled. The executive however, should, suggest the qualifications required for the various board members and officers and the considerations which are necessary for the creation of a well-rounded board, rather than insist upon or suggest too actively the nomination of specific individuals. A suspicion should never arise that he is hand-picking his own board of directors or his officers. His role should be to make suggestions to help the committee and to keep it from choosing people who are not qualified.

The executive, by virtue of his acquaintance with the community and with the problems of his organization, often has specific information about individuals which will be helpful, but he should offer it only as a suggestion. It is a good plan for him to submit to the nominating committee a list of the positions to be filled and suggested qualifications for those positions, together with the names of persons of known interest and ability (more numerous than the positions to be filled) from which the committee may select. The committee should understand that it is entirely free to select any other persons it may think desirable.

(*b*) *Suggestion from Board and Constituency.* In addition to its own ideas and those of the executive, the nominating committee may find it desirable to secure suggestions from the agency's board members or from all or part of the voting membership. This may be done by letter, mailed with a return postal card.

(*c*) *Rotation in Office.* From whatever source names are received, the nominating committee should have in mind the full implications of the principles of rotation in office which have already been discussed. Almost every social worker has at one time or another seen an ingrowing board that is unwilling to listen to suggestions, unmoved by changing conditions of community life, and uninfluenced by the modern techniques of social work or one that is made up of persons practically all of whom are children or grandchildren of former board members of the organization. These are boards of tradition rather than boards of directors. Many an organization has

deteriorated because of the perpetual service on its board of certain willing and more or less valuable individuals. As has been suggested, many boards are too old and conservative; younger and more creative members should be worked in, to help in adapting programs and methods to changing conditions of community life. New blood is vital for the effective continuance of board activities.

One of the chief sources to which a nominating committee should look for board members are the committees of the organization. There board members can be kept, as it were, in incubation until they are ready to hatch out for full-fledged service in the openings which develop on the board.

(*d*) *Further Ideas from Executives.* Here are further practical suggestions, made either by individual executives or by groups of them:

Considering that proven workers are mortal, continuous effort should go into the task of getting new blood. Understudies should be developed for important jobs such as the president or the chairman of the campaign or finance committee.

Set up or maintain on cards a prospect list drawn from a variety of sources. Each card should show the community interests and connections of the person named and his probable value in various kinds of activity—for example, committee work, campaign work, executive leadership, board membership, and the like.

The individualization of board members is particularly important. Information as to where each serves most effectively and in what direction each one serves at all is essential to the society's well-being. The data are worth going over frequently to see just how much strength the board possesses and in what directions it needs strengthening. Is a board member useful:

(a) As an individual adviser?
(b) As a board member at board meetings?
(c) As the chairman of a committee?
(d) In the working out of interrelationships with other agencies?
(e) In his comprehension of the agency's work—what contacts with it?
(f) In working out a piece of community development?
(g) As an interpreter of the work?
(h) As a money-raiser through the community chest?

By the use of the policies which have been outlined, in conjunction with a well-planned constitution and bylaws, the board of directors of a social agency may be made a primary factor in its effective service.

Boards of directors carry on their work largely through committee action. The principles and practice of committee management will therefore be discussed in the next chapter.

QUESTIONS

1. What examples can you give of board members who have helped with
   - (a) Interpretation?
   - (b) Securing financial support?
   - (c) Rendering other volunteer service?
   - (d) Representing the agency?

2. How do you think members may be induced to share actively in board meetings?

3. Give an illustration of the board's work as a maker of laws and policies.

4. What examples can you give of good and of bad relationship between board and executive?

5. Can you give an example of circumstances under which an executive should resign rather than carry out the policies of his board?

6. What results have occurred in your observation when the executive is a member of the board of his own agency? (We hope you cannot find any such horrible example.)

7. Can you cite any example of board interference with staff management? If so, what were the administrative results?

8. What example can you give of staff participation in management?

9. Study the board of some social agency, analyzing the functions performed by board members in and for that agency and the qualifications these persons possess for board membership.

10. What do you think would be an ideal make-up for the board of that agency?

11. Give examples of good and bad effects resulting from the presence of the executive on the board of some other agency.

12. Study the work of the nominating committee of some social agency. How does its procedure compare with that studied in this chapter?

Chapter V

Committee Organization and Preparation

WHAT IS A COMMITTEE? Unless you were told the name of the group, you probably could not tell a board meeting from a committee meeting of a social agency. Same kinds of people; indeed, often some of the same people. Same procedures. Same problems, except that the committee usually gets them in less finished form, with more room for argument. And do the "boys and girls" argue!

This similarity is natural. Boards and committees of social agencies alike are groups of individuals charged with responsibility for deliberation and decision regarding the conduct of some aspect of social service. Hence it seems proper to consider the management of boards and committees as one problem which can be handled through one technique. Accordingly the words "board" and "committee" will be used interchangeably in this chapter. Please understand that the principles and practices discussed here are applicable to either group. The board is the ultimate authority. The committee usually is created by the board and is generally subject to it.

Webster's Unabridged Dictionary defines a committee as "a body of persons appointed or elected to consider, investigate, or take action upon, and usually to report concerning some matter or business, as by a court, legislative body, or a number of persons." In the social agency, a committee usually is appointed by the president and is responsible to the board for action in accordance with the constitution and bylaws or with a special "charge" committed to it by the board.

DEVELOPMENT OF COMMITTEES. From early beginnings in legislative bodies, the use of committees developed steadily, especially in the joint stock companies which came to be a feature of the conduct of business as a result of the discovery of the New World and the expansion of commercial activity. Charitable organizations naturally adopted the corporate organization's method of procedure. Committees, so useful in corporate business, were used also by these organizations and adapted to the needs of social work. This tendency

has steadily expanded. Now almost every social agency of any importance has at least three or four standing committees. Sometimes the list of committees of an active organization runs into the dozens. Through committtee organization most of the plans and decisions of social work are made. The committee is the co-operative society's answer to the problem of meeting conditions of administration too complex for individual action. Social work has done well to adopt this device.

USES OF COMMITTEES. Committees have many uses. They enable the social agency to enlist the co-operation of other groups and that of individuals. Through participative membership, committees create understanding of the problems and methods of the agency. They provide centers for the interpretation of the agency's work in the community at large. They train their members for the assumption of larger responsibility in the agency and the community. Through application of the principles of creative discussion they create and improve ideas for application to the work of these agencies.

In the same way as does the board of directors, the committee tests the validity of the ideas of the secretary. It enables him, if he will, to keep his head in the clouds yet to make sure that his feet are on the earth and that he and his organization tread the paths of reality. The committee gives the executive of the social agency and his staff contact with people who represent diverse elements in the community with which they must work. It thus keeps the professional personnel from living in too rarefied an atmosphere of technical seclusion.

Committees bring about co-ordinated action by individuals or groups who make common cause as the result of joint decision. Committees train their members for service as officers and members of the board of directors. They give permanence to the policies of the organization. They transmit the enthusiasm of the executive and the officers of the agency to the whole community. They help to develop morale in the organization through the participation of their members in decisions and through their support of agency activities. A good committee may serve as a buffer between the executive and persons who make unreasonable or unfair demands on him, for the committee's decisions are impersonal rather than personal. In creative decisions following discussion, committees may take the initiative in working out plans for the agency's work. They afford an opportunity for effective activity to many people who are willing to serve, and they save argument by creating an informed group of co-opera-

tors. They prevent work at cross-purposes and promote harmonious action since all members of the committee may understand their relationship to the group decision. Committees, properly used, may constitute one of the most important forces in effective service by the social agency.

KINDS OF COMMITTEES. Although possessed of so many values, committees technically are of two main kinds: advisory committees with a responsibility for rendering opinions, and executive committees with a responsibility for direct action. The budget committee of a community chest might be considered an advisory committee in that it makes its recommendations to the board of trustees. The campaign committee might be considered an executive committee because it is charged with the duty of organizing the campaign and of carrying it through to a successful conclusion.

It is essential for a committee secretary to be familiar with the functions of each committee and to have that committee keep to its line of duty. A written "charge" based on excerpts from the constitution, bylaws, or minutes of the agency board may be a help to keeping the committee "within the reservation."

Committees vary greatly according to the nature and problems of the social agency. It has already been suggested that standing committees represent the continuous and permanent functions of the organization, whereas special committees are created to serve for shorter periods of time.

A typical community chest and council has officially an executive committee, a campaign committee, a public relations committee, a budget committee, a finance committee, and an executive committee. The council, in turn, has permanent sections or committees on case work, group work, health, research, and social service exchange. Special committees and subcommittees are established as needed for special projects or for subdivisions of the work of the standing committees or sections.

A typical Boy Scout organization has a council (or board of directors), an executive board, and the following committees: finance, camp, education, court of honor, circus, volunteers, publicity, reading, civic service, troop organization, leadership, plan and scope, and extension, as well as a committee on committees continuously to maintain committee membership at a high level of competence. In addition, each troop within the Boy Scout organization in the city has its own separate troop committee.

A social agency should study carefully the kinds of committees it

requires to carry on its work, and then it should see that such committees are created with the purposes, sizes, and personnel which will be most effective in view of the agency's particular needs.

An advisory committee, which meets only once or twice a year if at all, may be a useful device for recognizing the interest of retired board members and prominent citizens. It may keep them in touch with the work of the agency by mailing them reports and other literature on which their advice (if any) is requested. The names of these persons may add luster to the agency's letterheads and to annual reports, and they may be worth an annual newspaper story by which some readers may be impressed (favorably it is hoped).

SIZE OF COMMITTEES. As has already been suggested, the size of the committee is important. Just as Abraham Lincoln is reputed to have said that a man's legs should be long enough to reach the ground, so also the committee should be large enough to do its work. It should be of sufficient size to include the main interests and points of view which are to be considered, but small enough to make deliberation possible. A committee of five may have difficulty in effective deliberation if two or three of the members are absent; yet a committee of twenty, if everyone is present, may degenerate into a debating society.

MODE OF APPOINTMENT. Consideration must also be given to the mode of appointment. The board of directors may authorize the president of the agency or the chairman of the committee to appoint a committee according to his own idea. Again, the board may authorize either of them to appoint the committee but require that he submit the names for its approval before the committee is finally authorized. For instance, it is a good plan to have the names for the budget committee of a community chest submitted by the committee chairman to the board of directors before the committee becomes active, in order to make sure that all interests involved in the various agencies and in the community are represented as effectively as possible.

In the naming of committees by the president or the committee chairman, the secretary usually is the power behind the throne. He should know the available committee material and should suggest to the appointing officer the names of qualified persons and the reasons why he thinks they are suitable. His purpose is not to dominate the committee organization but, as in other forms of organization activity, to present material from which a wise selection may be made. If the executive does not know the names of persons who are

available for service, he can at least suggest the qualifications which should be met in the appointment, exactly as he may do with the nominating committee in the election of board members and officers. In connection with the typical Boy Scout organization mentioned above a committee on committees was mentioned. Such a committee may be very useful in canvassing the potential committee material and in suggesting the names of persons who will be available for service when openings develop.

COMMITTEE MEMBERSHIP. No matter what the method of selection, the make-up of the committee should be carefully considered. It is a well-known fact that in legislative affairs the membership of the committee usually determines the results of its action. A senatorial finance committee with a Democratic majority is likely to present a social security bill acceptable to the Democrats, despite a minority report by Republican members. The struggles to control the appointment of committees in federal and state legislatures are notorious. Similar struggles should not exist in social agencies. Yet the social agency must always realize in forming its committees that their membership should be painstakingly shaped to the problem which is to be handled.

(*a*) *Qualification of Members.* First, a committee should include, if possible, persons interested in the subject. Next, if the subject matter of the committee is controversial, the committee should at least be bi-partisan or multi-partisan and should include persons qualified to present the various points of view which must be harmonized.

It may also be well to include in some committees certain persons primarily because the organization desires to interest them in the project under consideration. For example, some community chests put on their budget committees a few persons who represent wealth, individual or corporate, who it is thought may give larger sums of money because of their growing realization of the problems of community chest member agencies. Chest budget committees often include, also, representatives of organized labor, who it is hoped will favorably affect contributions by employees of industry and business in the annual chest campaigns.

When a committee is educational in purpose, it may be desirable to include persons who have contacts with groups to which they can transmit the information which they gain in the committee. Members may be chosen also for their influence in social action—for example, persons with important political connections, if the social

agency wishes to work out some arrangement with the city or county administration. Again, a prominent person may be appointed because his name will add prestige to the work of the committee.

Committee making is a fine art and should be practiced thoughtfully and with discretion.

(b) Securing Members. Appointment on a committee does not always mean that the person appointed will serve. If a committee task is difficult and the acceptance of the prospective member is uncertain, the president of the organization or the chairman of the committee, perhaps with other important citizens, should call on him and accentuate personal invitation with urgent persuasion. Some committee tasks are so difficult—for example, those of a campaign committee or of community council committees on touchy social problems—that only personal suasion diplomatically and urgently applied will secure acceptance of the appointment.

If the committee is to be elected by the governing body of the organization, the promise of the person to serve should be secured before the election takes place. On the other hand, some committee appointments which entail not only work but honor, with distinguished responsibility as well, can be handled by a letter which represents the official action of the organization. Its prestige and the importance of the work to be done may be sufficient to secure willing acceptance of the assignment. If, however, there is any doubt of acceptance and if the agency really wants the appointee to serve, it is best to have the appointing officer or a deputation of citizens call on him and bring his acceptance back with them.

(c) Maintaining Lists of Members. After the social agency has secured acceptance of its committees' members, it has the technical problem of keeping lists of such members available for use and reference. Some organizations keep their committee lists in manuscript form, perhaps in the executive's desk or in the general files. If the executive delegates the secretarial job to one of his professional staff, that person should be responsible for his committee list. Duplicate lists may well be sent to the chairman and members of the committee.

A manuscript list for a committee which is likely to change is not entirely satisfactory. As names are dropped or new ones added, the list may become increasingly illegible. A card list, filed either in the usual vertical box or drawer file or in a visible file, will probably be found much more serviceable and satisfactory than a manuscript list. An excellent way of keeping lists is on addressing machine plates or

stencils. Such a list can replace the card list already mentioned, can be used for reference, can be easily corrected, and can be used for addressing notices and for making up manuscript lists of members by means of the listing device on the addressing machine.

Every social agency which has a hundred or more names on mailing lists should have addressing equipment. If a committee has a membership of considerable size (say twenty-five or more) and meets as often as four times a year, the names should be put on plates or stencils. As a stencil is made a card can be imprinted from it and inserted in the committee file. Cards can also be made and inserted in a master alphabetical file of board and committee members. On each card should be written the name of each group on which the individual serves. This will help prevent too great a concentration of committee service on any one individual. If the addressing equipment is handy to the persons who will need to refer to the list of committee members, the supplementary card file can be entirely dispensed with, and reference can be made directly to the plates or stencils. Many an overworked committee secretary would find his tasks immeasurably lightened by purchase of an inexpensive mechanical addressing equipment.

THE CHAIRMAN. To make its work effective a committee thus chosen and listed must have a competent and able chairman. A chairman is a good deal like the balance wheel in a watch. He keeps the committee proceeding evenly and regularly upon its appointed task.

(*a*) *Duties of the Chairman.* A number of important duties devolve upon the committee chairman:

He must be informed on the subject under discussion.

Further, he must prepare for the meeting so that he may secure intelligent participation and definite decisions. He will usually find it desirable to confer with the secretary in advance of the meeting about the items which will be placed on the agenda and the order in which they will be considered, as well as any special problems which presentation and discussion will entail.

He must call the meeting to order on schedule. One of the chief wasters of civic time is the chairman who waits for his group to gather after the announced starting hour. Each time they will come later because they count on his leniency.

The chairman must preserve order. While doing this must be good-humored and capable of maintaining the spirit of the committee. Thus he will make the lightning of his wit flash through the

clouds of acrimony, to prevent bitter argument and recrimination.

He must eliminate irrelevancies and hold the committee on the main line of discussion.

He must give all points of view an opportunity for expression. He should stimulate discussion, calling on bashful members who do not participate in the discussion or on particularly informed members whose points of view may aid in the decision. He should recognize all members of the committee when they wish to speak, and should give full leeway to their participation.

He must bring up the items of business to be considered in their proper sequence.

He must, of course, be impartial. He should ordinarily not argue for or against any project.

He may ask pertinent questions which will bring out points of which he is aware but which have not yet been considered.

From time to time he may sum up the opinion which seems to have been developed so far and ask the group if that represents its opinion. If it does, he may suggest that it is time to take action. He must make sure, when all the necessary talking has been done, that the committee comes to a prompt, united decision and passes on to the next business. He should be quick to detect the impatience of members. Then he will either end a discussion which is no longer profitable or bring about adjournment if he sees that the group is tired of all discussion.

The chairman must see that the motions presented are clear and specific and that the action taken includes a definite fixing of responsibility for its execution.

He must see also that the meeting adjourns on time, unless adequate reasons for continuance are manifest. A committee's reputation for meeting promptly will mean that members will arrive promptly. Reputation for adjournment on schedule (unless some emergency prevents) will mean that the members will attend when otherwise they might stay away for fear of not getting through on time.

The chairman has the further duty of presenting written reports, at the conclusion of the committee's work if it is a special committee, or at the monthly meetings of the board of directors and at the annual meeting of the members. The secretary usually has the duty of writing these reports, but sometimes he finds a jewel of a chairman who is sufficiently informed and interested to write his own.

The chairman's task, in brief, is to carry out the principles of

participation which have already been discussed and to see that his committee is a creative entity. Thus chaired, the committee will produce, through mutual discussion, ideas and decisions which would be impossible without its interplay of thought and personality.

(*b*) *Selection of the Chairman.* Although the duties of the chairman are manifold, his selection is variously provided for. In an informal committee it is often understood that the first person named as a member is the chairman, unless the chairman has been specifically named. Sometimes it is provided that the committee shall elect its own chairman. This procedure is started by some member of the committee who has more experience or more enterprise than the others. He says that he will act as temporary chairman and nominate Mr. So-and-So to be chairman of the committee; then he acts until a chairman has actually been elected. Usually, however, the chairman is selected by the appointing authority, whether that be the president of the organization or the board of directors. It is well to make sure that, if the chairman is not so chosen, the procedure by which he is to be selected is specified. Good chairmen are rare. An organization should select them painstakingly and encourage them by honor and advancement.

(*c*) *Rotation of Chairmen.* Difficult as it is to find good chairmen, the principle of rotation still holds. If a chairman stays in office for too long a time, the committee may come to be regarded in the eyes of the community or of the organization as his personal game preserve. Indeed, the committee itself may begin to think that it has no function beyond approving his proposals. Under such lamentable circumstances a committee is near to functional death.

A good chairman may be appointed for two successive terms of one year each. After the second year, however, it is wise either to give him a year's vacation from the committee's leadership or to make him the chairman or a member of some other committee on which he can serve satisfactorily.

The principle of rotation in office has been applied too long and too often to allow any doubt as to its validity. Something is wrong with an organization which cannot get along except with a certain man or woman as president or chairman of a committee. No one should be indispensable on the paid staff or as an officer of the organization. Apparent indispensability is the best evidence that a substitute should be trained at once and put in that position as soon as possible.

PLACE OF MEETING. Before the chairman thus duly appointed (and

rotated) can exercise his skill, however, the place and time of meeting must be arranged and the meeting actually called. Many considerations enter into the choice of a meeting place.

(*a*) *Kind of Place.* If possible, the place of meeting must be convenient for the majority of the members of the committee. Business men, for example, will usually want their meeting in the business district, if it is to be held during the day. On the other hand, if the meeting is to be held in the evening the committee will probably prefer a location in the residential district.

The meeting room should be well lighted, either artificially or by daylight. Pains should be taken to see that the members of the committee are seated so that they do not have to stare into the light.

The room should be well ventilated, in order to prevent, if possible, that torpor which so often falls upon committees. Air-conditioned rooms may be not only a comfort but a lure to attendance in hot weather.

The room should be large enough to hold the committee members comfortably, yet small enough so that they will not seem to rattle around and be insignificant because of the magnitude of the space. A lesson learned from public meetings applies to committee meetings. It is usually better to have an overflow meeting in a small hall, which gives the impression of popularity, than to have even a large group of people in a much larger hall in which they seem lost and unimportant.

A social agency need not always hold its committee meetings in its own office or go to the expense of renting an office large enough for them. Office space in most cities costs a great deal. Space used only for infrequent meetings represents a potential waste which should be carefully checked.

A social agency can usually secure without charge the use of meeting rooms in a great variety of places—public libraries, public schools, bank directors' rooms, chamber of commerce meeting rooms, church parish houses, and so on, almost without end. This may be done with propriety because the agency renders a community service.

The ideal arrangement is the location of the agency's office in a social service building where facilities for meetings of various sizes are available for a number of agencies. In that event, however, it is wise for an agency to check with some central clearinghouse in the building before it calls a meeting in a room which may already be engaged for the hour planned.

Arrangements must sometimes be made, too, with the janitor or some other official, for a public building to be opened and the lights turned on. The agency must have the assurance of the organization whose room is being borrowed that the room is available and that it can be used. Instances are not lacking of committees and social agencies which have called meetings without the consent of the legitimate possessor of the place selected. The board of directors of the First National Bank is not amused if it finds its room pre-empted by the Case Committee of the Travelers' Aid Society.

Be sure, also, that the meeting place is congenial to the committee members. In many cities in the South and in some cities in the North the social agency, if it is one which expects to have Negroes present at its meetings, must make sure that they will be admitted to the building. Many hotels will not allow Negroes in their passenger elevators or sometimes even in their public rooms. The same difficulty may arise with certain clubs. Religious prejudices also must be considered. Members of one religious group may be offended or stay away because the meeting is held in a building dedicated to the uses of another religious body.

Economic attitudes, too, may affect the choice. Members of labor unions may hesitate to meet in a chamber of commerce. The answer, of course, is one of plain courtesy. If you expect to ask people to attend a meeting, make sure that the meeting place chosen is one where they may come without embarrassment.

A social agency, knowing the community prejudices, should not needlessly go contrary to these prejudices.

(*b*) *Meeting Room Equipment.* The equipment of the meeting room also deserves special consideration.

A sufficient supply of chairs should be available. They should be comfortable, preferably with arms. The backs should be curved appropriately to fit the spinal contours of human beings. Every experienced committeeman remembers hours of torture spent in straight-backed chairs and the ways in which he strove vainly to escape their discomforts—by tilting back against the wall unceremoniously, sitting sidewise, or otherwise contorting himself to escape the painful angularity of the seats.

If possible, have a table around which the committee can sit and on which they can put any documents they are to consider. On the table have ash trays for the smokers; they are bound to smoke.

If no large table is available, arrange the chairs in a horseshoe, with the chairman or leader at its opening so that all may be within

his sight. Thus each may see the others and all may participate in the discussion. Nothing is more difficult to handle than a committee seated in straight rows of chairs, with the front row sparsely occupied and the back rows more densely populated.

The person responsible for the meeting should make sure that coat racks or check-room facilities are available.

A blackboard should be provided, together with chalk and eraser, if needed for a demonstration.

If stereopticon slides, a motion picture film, or a sound-slide film are to be shown, necessary arrangements should include a projecting machine and an operator. A screen should be hung in the proper place. Arrangements should be made for blocking off the window light, the push buttons for the electric lights located, and someone appointed to turn off the lights at the proper signal. A pointer should be provided for the stereopticon lecturer and an electric buzzer signal for him to notify the operator when to change slides.

There should be a well-filled water pitcher and glasses if speeches are to be given. The speaker may need a reading lamp and reading table at suitable height.

The head table should be equipped with memorandum pads, pencils, and copies of reports which may be necessary for the chairman. Pencils and pads are useful items for committee members as well.

The chairman's gavel should not be overlooked. Thumping on the table with the chairman's watch may be bad for its works. Whacking a tumbler with a knife may add to the hotel's glassware bill. Besides, a gavel looks official.

DAY OF MEETING. Another preliminary to the calling of a committee meeting is the choice of a day which will be satisfactory to the members.

In cities where many meetings are held, it is sometimes a good plan, before calling an important committee, to telephone the members to see whether the day tentatively chosen is acceptable to them. If this is not satisfactory, another should be selected which will be agreeable to the majority. Such a complex arrangement is not usually necessary for committees that have definite days for meeting. Still, this procedure is often desirable for special meetings of committees. Sometimes the day for the next meeting can be set at the close of the current meeting so that all who attended will hold the day and hour.

Even for committees which meet regularly it is wise to find out by canvassing at a committee meeting or by a mail questionnaire what

day of the week will suit the members best for the regularly recurring meetings. An excellent plan for a standing committee is to have a definite hour, day, and place for the meeting each week or each month, or at whatever interval it occurs, so that the members may hold this time open and make their plans to attend.

THE HOUR. Not only the place and the day of meeting are important, but also the hour and its relationship to food.

(*a*) *Morning Meetings that Begin with Breakfast.* We still remember with a watering of our editorial mouth a community chest campaign meeting held years ago at breakfast in a YMCA, at which sausage, griddle cakes, and syrup were served. The attendance was excellent, the spirit enthusiastic, and the satisfaction complete. Everyone was released in time to go to his office for his morning's work. As the Yankee said of mince pie for breakfast, "You could feel it a-nourishin' you and a-nourishin' you all day long."

Morning meetings at 10 or 11 o'clock, after the business man has got his morning's mail out of the way, or after the housewife has done her work, may meet the needs of some committees.

(*b*) *Luncheon Meetings—a Few Cautions.* Luncheon meetings often are the most satisfactory of all. As just suggested in connection with breakfast meetings, food, even though paid for by the consumer, seems to be a bait which few people can resist. Lunch has the advantage that you do not have to get up so early, after a night before, to get it.

Decision, by the way, should be made in advance of the meeting as to whether the committee members are to pay for the luncheon, who is to announce the cost, and who is to collect for the meal. All too often the well-intentioned chairman who arranges for a meeting at his private club for the convenience of all concerned is too reticent to mention this matter and is left "holding the bag." Failure to mention the price may be all right if the members of the committee take turns in entertaining, but in a case like that mentioned above it may soon become too much of an old story for the chairman if the performance is repeated. The best plan for the self-respecting chairman is to make arrangements for payment and collection in advance and to put a word as to the cost of the meal in the notice for the meeting.

Private rooms of hotels and clubs may often be used for luncheon meetings. When such facilities are used, however, the person who arranges for them should find out whether there is a charge for the use of the room. Such a charge, if there are not enough members

present to share the cost, may be too heavy a burden on the individual host or, if paid by the agency, on it. Under these circumstances it may be desirable to meet for lunch around a table in a secluded corner of a hotel dining room, restaurant, or club. A resourceful secretary will have a list of the places (if any) where luncheon can be served at a cost that will not be too heavy, in private rooms for which no additional charge is made.

The person who arranges the meeting should make sure that the charge for luncheon will not be so great as to embarrass financially the members of the group who are to meet. A dollar-and-a-half luncheon charge may scare off some who feel they could stand a dollar. Often social agencies, such as the YMCA or the YWCA, serve committee luncheons at a reasonable cost. Usually good food, too!

Sometimes agencies that have suitable facilities hold committee and directors' meetings in their conference rooms. Each guest is served with a light luncheon purchased in a restaurant or from a caterer and served on the agency's dishes, with coffee that has been made by a member of the staff. The committee members are charged the actual cost.

The menu for the luncheon should be neither heavy and soporific nor so light as to make the members seek a real meal when they are through.

One agency reported to us the following procedure:

> The restaurant sets the table in advance of the meeting and provides a buffet luncheon. . . . Much less time is consumed than when each member orders his own luncheon. This plan has worked out satisfactorily for groups of a dozen or more.
>
> The meeting is called for, say, 12:30. The secretary has his luncheon earlier. The actual business of the meeting is started not later than 12:30. The meeting goes ahead while the members are eating their luncheons. In this way from 15 to 20 minutes are saved.

Some staff member should be assigned the task of making the reservations for luncheon meetings and of checking off the names of those who say they will attend. Too often it happens that a number of those who promise to be present neither come nor cancel their reservations, that the number guaranteed to the hotel or restaurant is not reached, and that it then collects from the social agency the difference between the amount of money guaranteed and the amount actually paid. The facile committee secretary will learn what the usual percentage of attenders is and order accordingly.

Usually a hotel or restaurant will allow 10 per cent leeway in reservations, and the secretary can figure his attendance within that margin.

The privilege of ordering individually is usually difficult to arrange if a large number of people attend the meeting and if the service must be rapid. There should, however, be at least one choice on the menu. The person who arranges for the meeting should have in mind the dietetic laws of religious groups. He should provide fish on Friday if Roman Catholics are to be present, and kosher food if rigorously orthodox Jews are expected. A choice between fish and meat is often offered. The canny executive will make sure either that all present are served food which will be offensive to none (of course, he cannot guarantee the quality of the cooking) or that everyone is offered his choice.

In order for each member of the committee to have what he wishes for luncheon, where it is difficult to provide for individual orders, the meeting may be held at some such hour as one o'clock, with luncheon arranged for those who wish it and the others asked to have lunch before they come to the meeting.

(c) *Afternoon and Evening Meetings (with and without Food.)* Two o'clock meetings are often satisfactory for business men who go to lunch at one and can stay away from their office until 3:00 or 3:30 P.M.

Four o'clock may also be a good hour. Then, however, the chairman should make sure that he holds the business of the committee to a strict time limit. Otherwise housewives will commence trying to leave to prepare dinner or to meet husbands, and businessmen will want to get back to their offices to sign mail or be on their way toward their homes. No mention should perhaps be made here of four o'clock meetings with tea and "trimmings"—there might be no end to describing such agreeable events.

For many groups, especially in smaller communities, dinner meetings are satisfactory. The greater cost of dinner meetings as compared with that of luncheon meetings should, however, be considered.

Evening meetings also are sometimes suitable for people who have to work during the day or in another community. In suburban communities of New York and other huge cities an evening meeting is almost the only kind possible for social agencies. In many small towns, too, these meetings are satisfactory. In most large cities, however, evening meetings are difficult to hold, because committee mem-

bers have scattered to their various homes and do not feel inclined to travel the distances necessary to reach the meeting place.

The best rule, then, in arranging the time and the place for a meeting is to canvass the committee members carefully regarding their wishes—as to time, place, and the presence or absence of food —and to make such arrangements as will suit the majority.

SPECIAL CONSIDERATIONS FOR LARGE MEETINGS. Most of what has just been said regarding arrangements for committee meetings applies also to those of larger groups, such as annual meetings of members of an organization, conferences, and the like. The theory has sometimes been advanced that a large meeting, because of its general character, may be more formal and dignified if held at some other time than at meal time, in the thought that meals tend to produce informality. Some social workers who have attended such affairs are inclined to the opinion that nothing can be more formal than a formal dinner and nothing more dignified than a head table adorned by ladies and gentlemen in evening clothes.

DRESS. If a dinner meeting is being planned, it is wise to decide whether evening clothes are to be worn and to inform the persons who are to sit at the speaker's table accordingly. The one man at a head table who appears in a dress suit when everyone else is in business clothes is not less uncomfortable than the uninformed man who arrives at a formal meeting in slacks and an odd jacket when all the other men are in Tuxedos.

LENGTH OF MEETING. Although, as has already been stated, meetings should begin on time and end on time, the meeting should be long enough to cover the business at hand. Some communities seem to have made a fetish of hour-long meetings. Some latitude should be allowed for full discussion. If the business cannot be covered within an agreed upon time limit, the committee should consider lengthening the limit or meeting more frequently than its earlier intention. Another possibility would be to break the committee into subcommittees, which would predigest some of the material that otherwise would require mental alimentation by the whole committee.

CALLING THE MEETING. Important as are the time, place, and length of meeting, they are merely the background for the activity indicated in the notice.

(*a*) *A Plan for the Meeting.* Before the notice is sent out, the secretary of the committee should plan the meeting thoroughly with the chairman. They should agree upon the form of the notice, the

subject matter, and the content and significance of the discussion. They should settle upon questions that interpret the work of the agency and yet are suitable for decision by a body of men and women who are not intimately in touch with details of professional social work.

(*b*) *Time between Notice and Meeting.* Regardless of the subject for the meeting, notice should be sent out in ample time before the meeting is held. One week in advance is usually satisfactory. If less time than this is given, the members of the committee may already have made other engagements for that time. On the other hand, if the notice is sent out more than a week in advance, the time that elapses may be too long. For example, if a meeting is scheduled for Thursday, October 17, and if the notice is sent out on Monday, October 7, some of the committee members may note merely that the meeting is to be held on Thursday, and come on Thursday, October 10. We have done it ourselves!

Some social workers in large cities have objected that this is not true there. They feel that, if there is to be a meeting of people who are at all busy, notice should be sent at least a month in advance in order for them to reserve the date. Under such circumstances it is probably wise to get out a brief notice a month in advance and to send a detailed notice a week before the meeting.

Since most cities, however, do not suffer from such complexities of life as does the metropolis, a notice one week in advance will usually suffice. This is especially true if the committee is one that has a definite and regular date of meeting or if a date has been agreed upon at the committee's prior meeting.

When emergencies arise, notices may sometimes be sent out less than a week before the meeting.

The efficient secretary, however, will not get into the slovenly habit of deferring his notices merely because he is too busy doing something else. He will put ticklers for the meeting date and notice date into his tickler file and will follow these gentle reminders meticulously. Getting notices out on time is as important in the technique of administering committees as is any other point in successful committee activity.

(*c*) *Methods of Notice.* Equally important with the time of sending out the notice is the method of giving the notice. Notices obviously may be given in various ways.

In some small rural towns it would probably be easy to call a meeting of a Red Cross chapter executive committee by having a suffi-

ciently stentorian-voiced person stand in the middle of the public square and shout the news of the meeting. Even a whisper at the courthouse gets around with astonishing speed in these towns.

Seriously, in small communities where members of committees are concentrated within a small area, it is feasible for the secretary of the committee to drop in personally to see them and tell them about the meeting. This is the slowest way of calling a meeting and the most expensive from the point of view of labor, yet it is probably the most effective. The personal touch in calling committees together, as in other phases of organized endeavor, usually gets the best results, but only in the smaller communities and with small committees is this personal method possible. The chief trouble with it is that the committee member has no visible notice and is likely to forget the date.

In larger cities the personal method may be attained through a telephone call by the secretary or his representative to all the members of the committee. They are told the time and place of the meeting and the chief subjects for discussion. Although a telephone call has the advantage of being personal, it has a disadvantage in that it does not always reach the individual desired. He may be out of his office or busy. The message may be incorrectly transcribed by his secretary or some other person who receives it. There is, further, the chance that the member himself may neglect to make a note of the message and may therefore completely forget to attend the meeting. Telephone calls are probably satisfactory for hurry-up meetings, but the great majority of notices for committee meetings everywhere are sent out in writing.

To maintain in a letter the value of the personal touch inherent in the personal call or the telephone call, a separately typed and personally signed letter is the most satisfactory. It gives an individual impression. The only trouble with this method is its high cost in labor and the fact that it requires first-class letter postage. Though this kind of letter may pay where the committee members are exceedingly particular individuals who are flattered by special attention, it is probably unnecessary for most notices. The secretary, in any case, will consider his committee carefully and determine whether its nature is such as to justify the extra expense of such highly personalized attention. With most committees it is not needed.

A satisfactory substitute for the individually typed letter to an important committee is the letter that is multigraphed, filled in on

the typewriter, and signed either by pen or with a signature device.

Presumably the members of the committee are interested in its work. A typed notice duplicated by the simple process of making carbon copies of the original on the typewriter, or by mimeograph or ditto machine, will be sufficient to secure their attendence. Notices to large committees are sometimes printed.

The problem of the methods of notice is the old question of the relationship of cost to efficiency. The secretary should weigh these factors carefully and choose that method which will produce the best results at the lowest cost per unit of participation.

(d) Delivery of Notices. Delivery of notices may be handled in various ways. If a messenger is available, the time short, the notice important, and the members of the committee likely to be impressed by personal attention, it may be worth while to deliver them by hand. A bank president whom we once knew, who was chairman of a small committee of which we were secretary, had a bank messenger deliver notices typed on his personal, engraved stationery. The boys certainly turned out!

Postal cards may be used satisfactorily for notices not of a confidential nature. They get quick attention and save postage, paper, and envelope cost.

Notices, not filled in or hand signed—and therefore eligible for third-class mail—are often sent by first-class mail in sealed envelopes in order to get preferential delivery and attention.

Identical notices to committees of twenty or more may by post-office regulation be sent unsealed as third-class mail for one and one-half cents each. The other one and one-half cents, or 50 per cent of the postage saved on each notice, may amount to a considerable sum in the course of a year. Delivery on letters sent under this third-class postal rate is slightly slower than on those sent under first-class postage. Presumably, too, such letters do not get quite the attention that first-class mail receives. So far as our observation shows, however, there is no indication in actual practice that notices sent under third-class postage are less effective than those at first class, except that deliveries have been slower when post-office personnel was scarce.

Special-delivery stamps may sometimes be used with striking effect. If an important meeting is to be called hurriedly, a special-delivery letter will secure speed in delivery and a certainty of attention given to no other form of postal delivery, except perhaps to registered mail for which the recipient must sign. The extra expense

of the thirteen-cent special-delivery stamp (we hope the cost will be reduced) may be well justified in important situations by the superior results secured.

All addresses on notices to be mailed should bear the postal zone numbers, to speed sorting in the postoffice.

There seems to be no good reason why, if the meeting is of the utmost importance, telegrams should not be used. They get attention—but of course it might be unfavorable! Unless no other means of notice will suffice, the social agency will without doubt be criticized for the extra cost of using telegrams for notices.

In addition to sending these various forms of individualized notices, the notice of the meeting may be published in the bulletin of the organization (if there is one which goes to all the committee members) or in the newspapers. However, where such casual and unspecialized notices were issued, a suspicion might arise in the minds of the members of the committee that the organization did not care particularly whether or not they came to the meeting. For the organization that does not care—and this book is not written for such organizations because it can hardly benefit them—this shotgun form of notice is less expensive than the rifle fire of the individualized notices which have been described. The obvious shortcoming of this form of notice is that although all good members of an organization are supposed to read its bulletins, as all good citizens are supposed to read the newspapers, they do not always do so.

Social workers experienced in committee activities in villages testify, on the contrary, that a notice in the village newspaper is sometimes sufficient—on the theory that there everyone reads the paper and talks about what is in it. This situation, however, is an exception to the general fact that newspaper publicity is not adequate for notices of committee meetings. If you want them, go after them!

(*e*) *Formal vs. Informal Notices.* No matter by what medium the notice of the committee meeting is issued, the notice itself may take two main forms. In the first place, it may be a purely formal notice—for example, "The regular meeting of the Admissions Committee of the Society of the Friendless will be held at . . . on . . . 19 . . in the Directors' Room. J. Westfall, Secretary." All the secretary has to do in this case is to insert the date and address on the cards. An American Legion post added to the efficiency of this kind of notice by using a special lure which may have secured results. The secretary wrote on each card, "Eats." For that particular post

that one word may have had more attraction than all the lengthy order of business which might have been inserted. A routine form of notice, however, would ordinarily indicate either that the organization did not care whether the members came or not, that the work of the committee had become routine, or that the committee was so tremendously interested that no other incitement was needed than announcement of the meeting.

Ordinarily, nevertheless, the formal notice is less effective than a special notice carefully adapted to the meeting that is to be held. This notice should state in detail the questions to be considered. It should include, if necessary, excerpts from reports or other material which will be helpful toward an understanding of these questions. The purpose of the notice should be not only to apprise the members that a meeting is to be held but also to inform them regarding the subjects to be discussed. Then the members can come prepared for intelligent participation and for prompt disposal of the matters to be considered. Moreover, this knowledge will help to develop better attendance and greater interest on the part of the committee members. Even if they cannot attend the meeting, they may call on the chairmen or secretary personally or write to him to express their points of view on these subjects, or drop in at his office after the meeting to see what has happened. The general experience of successful executives of social agencies shows the value of a complete and clear statement of the subjects to be considered.

Some time ago we saw the notice of a committee of a family society which contained such items for discussion as "mimeograph machine," "downtown office," and so on. This notice might have been improved by the addition of such questions as "Shall we purchase a used mimeograph machine guaranteed to be in first-class condition for the sum of $50 in order to save the cost of having our mimeograph material done by an outside firm at a present total cost of $250 a year?" and "Shall the downtown office be moved from its present location to 453 Adams Street, at no increase in rent?"

An enterprising secretary might experiment with his committee to see which form of notice—the routine, or the specialized—gets the better result. He may possibly find it desirable from time to time to change the form of the notice and the color of the paper (unless he persists in using the agency's letterhead) so that the interest of the committee will be aroused by the variety of presentation used. Notices may sometimes be made more attractive by sketching on the mimeograph stencil, or in ditto ink, more or less comical

or pertinent drawings which illustrate the subjects to be discussed or emphasize the importance of the notice.

The secretary must endeavor to keep the committee member from casting the notice aside with the remark, "Well, here's another notice from that ——— organization. I'm tired of those things!" and should make it so attractive that the members can neither avoid reading it nor fail to attend the meeting. The effective preparation of notices is a piece of public relations and salesmanship material just as important as those other forms of public relations material which are addressed to contributors or the general public. The committee member must stay "sold" on the work of his organization. The effective notice promotes that purpose.

(*f*) *Using the Chairman's Name.* Although the secretaries of committees often sign notices of meetings, it is usually better for the secretary (with the approval of the person concerned) to sign the name of the chairman of the committee and sometimes for the sake of variety to send the notice on the chairman's letterhead. The reason for this is clear. The staff secretary is usually a continuing personality, whereas the committee chairmen change. Committees may become tired of seeing the secretary's name always appended to notices, and the chairman's name may give a pleasing variety. Ordinarily, too, the chairman of the committee is a more conspicuous citizen than the secretary, and he usually has more influence over committee members. The chairman's name is likely to be more effective, therefore, in securing attendance and attention. It is to be suspected that some secretaries like to sign their own names to notices because this action gives them a feeling of importance. It is taken for granted, however, that if the committee secretaries who read this book wish to advance professionally they will wish to do so through the efficiency of their organizations. They will willingly forego the pleasure of seeing their names on notices if they can secure increased effectiveness in committee meetings by using the name of someone who is more influential with the committee personnel. Moreover, if the chairman's name is signed he is likely to feel more responsible for the operation of the committee and to take more pride in its results. Part of the secretary's work is to keep the chairman on the job.

(*g*) *Follow-up before the Meeting.* The person who signs the notices of meetings may well have his name used on a follow-up reminder of the meeting. In spite of the fact that a committee notice is sent out a week in advance, some members may lose, discard, or for-

get to look at the notice or to make a memorandum of it. When a large committee is considering important problems, it may be well worth while to incur the extra expense of mailing a postcard reminder on the night before the meeting so that the members will receive it in the morning. But if the committee is small the secretary may be able to do this by calling personally on the committee members.

The telephone reminder is most frequently used with committees of ordinary size, up to fifteen or twenty members. The secretary of the committee may do the telephoning, or if he has a secretary, switchboard operator, or some volunteer worker available that person may do it. The names of members of a large committee may be divided up on lists distributed among a few of the more active members, who will telephone those on their respective lists and remind them of the meeting.

It is good procedure to have the one who telephones say that he is speaking for Mr. ——— (chairman of the committee), who wishes to remind the member of the importance of the meeting and to say that he hopes the member will attend. The telephonist should have some clue as to the attitude of the members toward his calls. If a committee member is a busy person who dislikes being interrupted and has a secretary, it is the part of discretion to ask the secretary to remind Mr. Blank of the meeting. The telephonist should also be careful not to enrage the member by insisting on talking to him personally. It is better to leave the message than to demand that he be called to the telephone. A lady committee member whom we once had to placate was not particularly pleased when she was called from the third to the first floor of her home to answer a telephone inquiry as to whether she would be present at a meeting. She felt—and properly too—that the maid should have been asked to give her the message. The secretary or maid with whom the message is left may legitimately be asked to telephone a return message as to whether the committee member will attend the meeting.

Another means of follow-up that is sometimes used is to mail to the committee members additional material not included with the notices—for instance, a report not available when the notice was sent but one which should have the consideration of the member in advance of the meeting.

An effective reminder, the principle of which is borrowed from the practice in some political campaigns, is to have members of the committee who have automobiles drive to the homes or offices of

other members, through arrangement made by telephone in advance, pick them up, and take them to the meeting. Free transportation is hard to resist.

General experience indicates that some one or more of these kinds of follow-up may well be used to stimulate attendance at meetings and that the expenditure of time and money will be well justified by the results.

(*h*) *Return Card to Indicate Intention.* As a means of emphasizing the importance of attendance at meetings and also of securing knowledge as to how many people are coming, a return postal card is often enclosed with the notice. If the notice itself is sent on a postal card, a double or return form of card may be used.

Government postal cards are not necessary for this purpose. Any texture or color cardboard may be used, and a one-cent stamp may be affixed, provided the card is no larger than 3–9/16 by 5–9/16 inches. For economy's sake the sender may be invited to stick his own stamp on the attached return card. Through some strange perversity of human beings, however, the "use your own stamps" idea seems to cut down the number of returns.

With large groups, where only a relatively small number will reply, a "business reply" card for which the ultimate recipient pays two cents on delivery, may be economical. The postmaster can give valuable advice on this subject.

The fact that a member has promised, by mailing a card, to attend the meeting seems to help enforce upon him the responsibility of attendance. Also, the fact that a certain person cannot come may change the plans for the topics to be considered at the meeting. Return cards are especially desirable in connection with luncheon and dinner meetings for which reservations must be made.

Return cards may be purely routine in their phraseology—for example, "I will (will not) attend the meeting of the Committee on Time and Place of the State Conference of Social Work at 4 P.M. on Friday, October 25. (Signed) . . . . On the other hand, a little imagination may profitably be worked into return cards, so that through reading and signing the notice the committee member is more committed to attending the meeting than he otherwise would be. For example, the return card for a luncheon meeting of a committee to discuss the purchase of an automobile for a family society might read:

You certainly may (may not) count on me to attend that luncheon meeting of the Committee on Automobile of the Family Society in Mrs. Jones's

Tea Room at 12:30 P.M. on Friday, October 11. I realize that the question of the purchase of the automobile for the society is an important one and shall be glad to share in the decision as to whether or not the car should be purchased and, if it is to be purchased, what style and what make it should be. Expectantly yours,

....

This jocular-kind of return card, matched by an equally alluring and specific notice, may sound silly to the sober reader, yet we can testify from actual experience that it has produced excellent results. The light touch often wins!

Return cards may involve as much salesmanship as notices. These cards, like the notices, may be illustrated with sketches drawn on the mimeograph stencil or in ditto ink. They may be prepared on paper of different color each time if private mailing or business reply cards are used instead of government postal cards.

(*i*) *Check-up on Performers.* Another necessary preliminary to the effective meeting of a committee is a checking up, by the secretary or chairman, of the persons who are scheduled to make reports or otherwise to participate in the meeting. One of the persons responsible should make sure that each one who is to make a report will be there and will be prepared to submit his report or, if he cannot attend, that an adequate substitute will present it. If a speaker is to appear, the secretary should ascertain whether he understands the place of meeting, his position on the program, and the amount of time he is to be allowed. If an important matter on which there is some difference of opinion is to be discussed, it may be wise for the secretary to get in touch with specially interested members of the committee and ask them to be prepared to discuss it and explain points of special interest that are likely to come up.

This does not mean, however, that a secretary should be in the position of logrolling for his pet projects. A secretary who attempts to fix meetings in advance by building up a majority of adherents for a pet project is likely sometime to be the victim of logrolling himself. His best course it to send with the notice such interesting and informative material that all members will be glad to prepare themselves for intelligent participation in the meeting.

The secretary's job is to see that the meeting is held in a suitable place at a convenient time, and that it is attended by the largest possible number of adequately informed and interested committee members. If these suggestions are followed, the secretary is likely to find that his meeting at least will start well.

QUESTIONS

1. How many and what kinds of committees does some business corporation with which you are familiar have?
2. Give the same information for a social agency.
3. What uses and values can you find in some typical committee in a social agency with which you are familiar?
4. Analyze the committees of some social agency as to whether they are advisory or executive, standing or special, and as to the kinds of problems they consider or the services they render.
5. Analyze these committees according to size. What reasons are there for the different sizes?
6. How are the committees in this agency appointed?
7. Analyze the membership of a typical committee of this agency as to the qualifications of its members. How do you think the membership might be improved?
8. In this agency, how are committee members notified of appointment, and how is their consent secured?
9. How are the lists of the committee members kept?
10. Analyze the duties and methods in meetings of a chairman of a typical committee. How do you think his procedure might be improved?
11. How are committee chairmen selected in this agency?
12. What is done about rotation in office?
13. On what basis are places selected for the meetings of the committees of this agency? How might this selection be improved?
14. How might the arrangement of furniture and equipment for these meetings be improved?
15. On what basis are dates for meetings of this agency arranged?
16. What considerations enter into the selection of hours for meetings?
17. If food is served at any of these meetings, what special arrangements are made?
18. Are large meetings handled differently in principle from small ones in this agency?
19. In a typical committee of a selected social agency, what planning for meeting notices does the secretary do jointly with the chairman?
20. How long advance notice is given of meetings?
21. What kind of notice is given for meetings?
22. How are written notices delivered?
23. Are notices routine or specialized?
24. Who signs the notice, and why?
25. What follow-up is used before the meeting?
26. Are return cards used to indicate intention of attendance? If so, what kind?
27. Are persons who are to report at meetings reminded of their duty? If so, how?
28. How might this procedure be improved?

Chapter VI

Committee Meetings

EFFECTIVE AGENDA. With the foregoing preparations, your meeting should be off to a running start. In order to carry on the meeting effectively, however, a carefully prepared statement of agenda, docket, or order of business should be available for each person who attends.

(*a*) *Conference with Chairman.* The agenda are usually prepared by the secretary after conference with the chairman. This conference ordinarily is held after notices have been sent out and shortly before the meeting, since additional material beyond that mentioned in the notice often requires attention.

(*b*) *Statement of Subjects.* Some social agencies have a prescribed order of business—for example, minutes, treasurer's report, superintendent's report, communications, old business, new business, and so on. These organizations merely follow this routine blindly. Progressive social agencies, however, usually prepare special agenda which, like the suggested notice of the meeting, state clearly the subjects to be considered.

(*c*) *Presentation of Arguments on Agenda.* The form of the statement of agenda is important. If specific recommendations of committees are to be acted upon, or if formal motions already presented are to be considered, this material should be included in definite formal shape. The action then taken may be precisely in accordance with the proposals.

If the secretary is sure of the wisdom of a proposed action, he may suggest that procedure in the question itself. The following statement would suggest favorable action on the proposition: "The Committee on Administration has found that a good reconditioned adding machine will cost $200. We can save $300 a year by installing this equipment. Shall we accept the recommendation of the committee?"

On the other hand, the secretary may be uncertain regarding the

course to be taken, or he may think that the subject is one on which there is great diversity of opinion. He will then probably consider it wise to suggest the subject in a noncommittal way—for example, "The Committee on Office Administration recommends that we purchase a reconditioned adding machine for $200 which will probably pay for itself over a period of three or four years. Do you think it wise to make this purchase?"

Some able executives always state the propositions on their list of agenda in the form of problems. They may give possible solutions and arguments for or against each, so that the committee members may have the most complete possible basis for making their decisions.

(*d*) *Exhibits Attached to Agenda.* If the material to be considered in connection with any proposition on the agenda is too voluminous to be copied readily as part of that document, or if even when condensed the proposal makes the agenda too long, then the material should be copied as briefly as possible and attached to the agenda. This procedure can be followed with letters, abstracts of reports, and other documents. Each exhibit should be lettered to correspond with the item on the docket and should be attached in the order in which it is to be considered. The attention of the committee member should be called to the fact that the material is referred to on the agenda statement itself, as, "See Exhibit A, attached."

(*e*) *Presentation by Members.* One of the advantages of presenting in the agenda statement or in the attached exhibits all matters which require consideration is that this procedure reduces to a minimum the vocal participation of the secretary in the meeting. As will be developed here later, the secretary should be seen rather than heard. As far as possible, the chairman or members of the committee should present the subjects which are to be considered. Their names should appear on the agenda after the topics which they are to present. Often, if a subject has not been considered in advance by a subcommittee, a member of the committee can be asked to look into the matter and make the initial presentation. In this way the members of the committee may inform themselves more fully about the business in hand and be enabled to take more responsibility than if the secretary did most of the presentation.

(*f*) *A Good Example from Cleveland.* Our suggested mode of presentation, through summaries included in the agenda and the exhibits attached, may require a good deal of work in preparation and duplication; but it is worth the effort and expense, it facilitates effective committee action.

A good example lies before us in the docket (that is what they call the list of agenda in Cleveland) of the meeting of the Board of Trustees of the Cleveland Welfare Federation, held at 12:15 P.M in the Mid-Day Club. The material was loaned to us by Executive Secretary Edward D. Lynde. The docket contains twenty-six topics, concluding with this excellent one: "Matters board members wish to present." That is a good idea, to leave something to the members' initiative!

Practically every item on the Cleveland docket is assigned to some member for presentation. Under almost every topic there is a paragraph or so of single-spaced summary. Naturally the docket runs to seven and one-half ages. Attached are fifteen mere pages of copies of letters, committee reports, and so forth. That makes twenty-three pages in all. This sounds and looks like a lot of material, but we'll bet the board found it useful and did a good job with it.

That even the skillful secretary, Ned Lynde, had some qualms about all this material is indicated by item 5, "Attachments to the Docket." The summary underneath reads as follows:

> What are the wishes of the Board with regard to the attachment of material to the docket? Such attachments take considerable paper and some mimeographing. For example, the last Board docket took, all together, for all copies, about 1,350 sheets of paper at a total over-all cost of $1.35 for the paper.
>
> On the other hand, this relatively small expense and use of paper, even in this period of scarcity, may be worth while if it enables the Trustees to get through their business more expeditiously. For example, in the last docket, the attachments were (1) a letter from Marvin Harrison regarding the Pin-Boy Welfare Committee, and (2) a letter from the Children's Aid Society and the recommendations of two councils with regard to the transfer of the Children's Aid Society from one council to the other. The purpose of attaching the letters was to save the time which it would take to have the communications read in the Board meeting and yet to enable the Board to have the arguments on both sides of these questions before them. Otherwise, in a brief period, both sides of the question might not be adequately presented. In fact, on occasions when we have not attached such information, there has been criticism that the Board was expected to rubber-stamp the recommendation of a committee without full knowledge of the facts.
>
> You will observe the material attached to the docket today.
>
> What is the Board's desire? Shall we be more conservative, or shall we follow the same policy as in the past in attaching information to the docket? Will you please bear the question in mind and challenge us now or on any occasion when we seem to incorporate more or less material than is necessary in the docket or attached to the docket. But please be very specific as to exactly what material you wish to omit or include.

We rejoice to state that the Board voted to continue the policy of providing full information. What a board, and what a secretary!

(*g*) *Duplicating committee material.* Carbon copies of the original docket and exhibits may be made if the number is small. More copies can be dittoed or mimeographed. The secretary should prepare one set of this material for each member of the committee. The advantage of individualization is obvious. The ear finds it difficult to follow and to impress upon the memory the complicated figures or statements. If the material is available for each person to see, much more specific action can be taken than if the secretary or chairman merely reads the exhibits, and time can be saved.

(*h*) *Selecting Subjects for Committee Action.* In preparing the agenda the secretary should be careful to check over the minutes of the last meeting and to include all matters which are to be reported on or those which were left incomplete.

He may, with profit, keep a file folder for each committee for which he is responsible. Into each folder are put memoranda of all matters to be considered by the committee. Before each committee meeting the secretary takes from the folder the accumulated material, arranges it in order, and prepares the notice and the agenda.

The secretary should make sure that the meeting does not treat merely routine business. The group should also consider topics of special and varied interest. In that way the committee will have a feeling that interesting and worth-while things are to be done and that it is not to be used only as a "rubber stamp." When a commitee has a definite and regular date of meeting but important business is not available, it may sometimes be wise to have a staff member tell of especially interesting cases or discuss unusual problems, or to have the representative of another social agency tell about its work.

The secretary should be careful not to plan too much material for the meeting. It is well to estimate the amount of time to be given to each item. Otherwise, with the hour of adjournment past, the committee may either lose a quorum or fail to discuss important matters. If the meeting is too long, the members will be reluctant to attend another. A vigilant secretary watches the chairman and the committee for signs of weariness and knows when to suggest to the chairman that he adjourn the meeting. Still more diplomatic is it to plan the meeting so that the time will be full but not too full—as far as the vagaries of committees in spending time in discussion can be predicted (they usually are unpredictable).

(*i*) *Strategic Order of Business.* The order in which material is presented on the agenda makes a great difference in the attention it secures. Matters considered at the beginning of the meeting are likely not to be heard by tardy committee members if the meeting begins promptly. On the other hand, if important proposals are put too far toward the end of the meeting, some of the members whose consideration ought to be given to the subject may leave before these items are reached. Some executives therefore put their most important material in the middle of the programs.

One executive whom we have observed always puts his own report on the docket after that of the treasurer, at the meetings of his board of directors. This executive feels that he has to report on matters of organization policy which should be heard by the greatest possible number of those who are to be present.

Reports of committees usually come before other items of business. The secretary should put first, among the reports of the various committees and the other business, questions that can be given quick attention and rapidly disposed of. Questions that will take more consideration may be placed last. If this is not done the committee may get into a controversy at the beginning of the meeting over some subject to which it will devote the whole available time, and never settle a number of other important matters which could have been disposed of in a few minutes. (Of course, you never can be quite sure just what the boys and girls will argue about and what they will pass over perfunctorily.)

On the other hand, we have been told of secretaries who, when wanting to "put something over," have inserted the item to be put over at the very end of the agenda. The thought of the contriver was that the committee, by that time tired of discussion, would be glad to agree to anything. This procedure seems somewhat Machiavellian. We hope it will not be followed by secretaries and chairmen committed to the principles of democracy and participation. At any rate, the agenda should be carefully planned. On that, both autocrat and democrat can agree.

(*j*) *Adapting the Topics to the Committee.* The secretary should further have in mind the size of the committee and its readiness to give attention to his topics, before he puts them on the agenda. Certain subjects might be given adequate consideration by a small committee. On the other hand, a large committee might have so many points of view as to prevent these topics being given full consideration. It might therefore be well to withhold a matter from

consideration by a board of directors until the executive committee has had a chance to talk it over. If the executive is not sure that a board or committee can give adequate consideration to a subject, it would be better for him either to arrange for a subcommittee to discuss it or to have it held over for consideration until he has been able to give the committee or board such information that it can give the matter fair and full attention.

No matter how well prepared the agenda statement is, the chairman, the secretary, and the committee members should understand that it can act only as tentative index for the conduct of the meeting and that if certain members want other projects discussed these may be inserted in the order of business. On the other hand, any topic on the agenda may be postponed at the will of the membership.

(*k*) *Mechanical Form of Agenda and Exhibits.* From the mechanical point of view, the agenda statement should be typed with wide margins and with double or triple spacing between the lines so that the committee members may write in their comments. As has been suggested, both docket and exhibits may be typed and duplicated by carbon copy, mimeographing, or dittoing. Exhibits may also take other forms. For example, a photostatic copy may be made of an elaborate tabulation or of charts which show trends in finance or in service. Charts drawn in ditto ink or on mimeograph stencils may be reproduced as part of the material supplied to the committee members.

(*l*) *Visual Presentations.* In addition to exhibits attached to the docket, the secretary may employ other forms of demonstration of projects which are to be considered by the committee.

Instead of attaching exhibits to the agenda, it may sometimes be effective to distribute them to the committee members when the topic comes up for discussion. Some committee members have a disturbing practice of reading ahead in the exhibits and thus not paying attention to the matter under discussion. Distribution takes a little time, but this may be more than justified by resultant concentration of attention.

A blackboard may be effectively used during the meeting by the person who is making a report or submitting a proposition, or the data to be presented may be written on the board in advance of the meeting. Shade rollers are sometimes attached to blackboards and pulled down over the material that is to be exhibited until time for its consideration.

Large blocks of drawing paper on an easel equipped with crayon

may take the place of the blackboard. Business corporations often use this procedure for sales problems. In the same way, enlarged photographs or photostatic copies of charts can be shown on an easel, for the instruction of all.

Photographs of situations such as bad housing conditions, drawings of proposed new buildings, copies of budgets, or outlines of arguments may be reproduced on lantern slides and shown to the committee, especially if the committee is large. Lantern slides can be made at low cost from photographs and drawings. So-called radio mats can be purchased cheaply at motion picture supply houses. With a typewriter the radio mats can be turned readily into lantern slides of typed material. Motion picture films also can be shown if they reveal some condition which the committee should consider. Lantern slides and motion pictures have the advantage of concentrating attention on the subject under consideration. The members are necessarily "completely in the dark" about everything except what is presented on the screen.

(*m*) *Demonstrations.* Sometimes an actual demonstration may be given. For example, a salesman might show the operation of an addressing or adding machine which it is proposed that the committee authorize the executive of the organization to purchase. Demonstrations of different kinds of electric floor waxers might be made before the purchasing committee of a children's institution. To see a piece of apparatus in operation is often much more conclusive as to its value than is a mere description of it by the executive, a picture in a catalogue, or even a fluent description of it by the salesman. The committee concentrates its attention on the exhibit, especially if it moves. Further, the device in full size and operation gives an idea of its performance which is not otherwise possible.

(*n*) *Presentations by Proponents.* It may be discreet to arrange for advocates of special projects to appear before the committee rather than have those projects presented by the secretary, especially if it is unlikely that the proposal will be approved. The secretary of a health organization might know that his organization would refuse to endorse the proposal of an enthusiastic representative of an anti-vivisection society that the health agency go on record against vivisection. The secretary would know, however, that the anti-vivisectionist would be exceedingly disappointed if the proposition were turned down and would probably think that the failure had occurred because the secretary had failed to present the proposal properly. If, however, the anti-vivisectionist appeared personally before the exec-

utive committee of the organization, he would know that if the decision were adverse his own presentation had failed. Besides, he would feel his failure less if it were at the hands of a committee, which is more or less impersonal and the members of which are presumably important members of the community, than if he thought the turn-down was due to the secretary.

It may be desirable to have the advocate of a proposition talk, even though his proposal is likely to be approved. The verbal presentation makes the meeting livelier and more diversified than if the secretary does the explaining. And the thought that so important a committee is to listen to the advocate pleases him. Perhaps, too, this procedure secures better attendance and attention from the committee; its members may think they must come to hear what Mr. Blank has to propose—especially if he is an important citizen.

(*o*) *Inspection of a Project.* Another form of demonstration consists in taking the committee to see the proposition upon which action is to be taken. A house committee can judge better of the need for repairs on the roof of a hospital if it inspects the roof. The budget committee of a community chest is likely to be more favorably inclined toward the purchase of chairs for a children's institution if the committee is taken out to see the youngesters sitting dolefully on backless benches. In this respect, as in all other ways of presenting material to committees, the fundamental principle is to give so vivid and clear a presentation that the committee can make its decision intelligently.

AIDS TO PRESERVATION OF COMMITTEE MATERIAL. A valuable aid to members of a committee in presenting the agenda and exhibits is to provide each member with a durable loose-leaf binder. The agenda, exhibits, notices, minutes, and other material which are presented to the committee may be punched for these binders. Thus preserved, the material can always be available in convenient form. The members should, of course, return the binders when their use is ended.

Ordinary cardboard file folders bearing the name of the organization may also be used effectively for committee work. Each member may be given a folder in which to file all pertinent material. The documents presented at meetings can be bound into the folders with brass pins.

Committee members may be asked to keep this material in their homes or their offices and to bring it with them to the meetings. If, on the contrary, they are held in the office of the social agency,

the notebooks and folders may be kept there and passed out to the members at each meeting. This plan, however, is faulty, since the committee member will be unable to file the material which he may receive from the social agency between meetings. The success of this procedure depends on whether the committee member is willing to carry the material to and from meetings.

CHAIRMAN'S PART IN THE MEETING. Although many suggestions for the conduct of a meeting have already been made, a few other points are worth touching on.

The chairman's part in the stimulation of discussion, as has been indicated, is perhaps the most vital factor in the conduct of the meeting. Sometimes his leadership may be supplemented by that of other members of the committee who have had experience in its work. As already suggested, committee or subcommittee chairmen should make their own reports whenever possible, instead of having them read by the secretary. If the chairmen read their reports, they are more likely to stand responsible for the projects presented, work harder for their execution, and be more interested in the meeting itself. In addition, the participation of a number of committee chairmen in a meeting gives more variety and interest than if all the reports are more or less perfunctorily presented by the secretary. The wise committee chairman also will be wary of all talk and no action. Committees become discouraged when they see that nothing is happening.

SECRETARY'S PART IN DELIBERATION. To enlarge upon a point made earlier, the secretary should hold himself in the background as far as possible. His task at all times is to stimulate the responsibility, thought, and activity of committee members. Rather than raise a question himself, he should suggest to the chairman that he call on some member of the committee who has something interesting to suggest. The secretary should prefer to assist the chairman with suggestions, either whispered or written or made aloud by indirection, than to be too active a protagonist for any subject. If the secretary tends to monopolize or to dominate the discussion, the committee members will quickly feel that he thinks the organization belongs to him and that he is getting them to the meeting merely to approve his opinion and desires. No one likes to be a rubber stamp!

The secretary's active participation usually should be deferred until it becomes necessary for him to give information that no one else seems to have, or to keep discussion or action from going in a direction that might be harmful. It is better for a committee to take

an hour to come to its own decision than to have it made by the secretary in five minutes. In the first case, the decision is a group decision; in the second, the committee may feel perhaps that the decision has been forced down its non-participating throat and that thus there was no real point to having the meeting.

The secretary should at all times be brief and direct in dealing with the board or committee. He should state his opinion clearly and concisely when he does speak. Too much talk by the secretary has perhaps killed more committees than any other single cause.

When he has to offer suggestions it may be desirable for him to make them as though they were not his own—for example, "It has been suggested that such and such might be a good plan," even though the suggester is himself.

He should respect the opinion of others. Because of his intimate knowledge of the agency, he should be all the more careful to remain in the background and to give others a chance to discuss their points of view. He must remember that board and committee members have experience of their own which has distinguished them as successful citizens. Their points of view on certain subjects may be even more valuable to the organization than his. Their interested co-operation is vital to its success. This attitude of secretarial reticence is fundamental and in accordance with the philosophy of participation in administration.

On the other hand, the secretary should not be a weak-kneed nonentity in committee meetings. He should be recognized and respected as a technician with professional training and experience. He should expect to be called upon by the chairman, who will doubtless do so from time to time. The secretary should share in an informal and friendly way in the discussion when he can make a contribution which no one else has the knowledge or the enterprise to make. The committee must recognize its partnership with him as a competent authority, while fulfilling its own responsibility for thought and decision.

Sometimes, of course, questions of fundamental policy arise—matters of right and wrong. Then, when it is apparent that no other course will prevent a wrong decision, the secretary must fight for his principles with all his power and persuasiveness.

As a professionally qualified adviser, his task is to know all phases of the agency's operation. One of his required skills is to make the committee a truly deliberate and participative body. If the secretary

knows his job, he need not dominate the meeting in order to receive the prestige and respect due his position and his ability.

This does not mean, of course, that professional social workers (other than the secretary) who are members of the committee should not participate on the same basis as laymen. They should, but secretaries should "lie low."

MINUTES OF THE MEETING. Some more or less facetious person has said that the chairman is the mainspring of an organization because he keeps it going. Another frisky individual answered if that is the case the secretary must be the balance wheel because he keeps the minutes and the seconds (of motions) as well.

(*a*) *Importance of the Minutes.* The minutes are an essential part of almost every meeting. One of the secretary's tasks is to keep them, according to the best possible standards. The minutes should be an impartial record of all motions passed and of all reports submitted at meetings. The minutes must be precise and specific. They are vital in the conduct of the work of the organization, for in case of dispute they involve the decisions of all question of policy, of property ownership, as well as of many other essential matters.

Regardless of how well conducted the meeting may be, it is not satisfactory unless out of it come intelligible, reliable, and accurate minutes. They constitute the fundamental legal record of the procedure of the boards and committees of the organization. Hence they stand as evidence of the past as well as existing state of affairs and attitudes of the organization. The minutes may affect not only present activities but also future policies. The record must be so phrased that it may not in the future have implications contrary to present intentions.

Much that might be said regarding minutes can be stated no better than in that authoritative book, Robert's *Rules of Order.* It should be read and followed by every secretary of a committee as well as by every presiding officer. Some of the points made there, however, need re-emphasis. Further, certain points of technique especially applicable to social agencies or outside the scope of the *Rules of Order* are well worth attention by any committee secretary.

(*b*) *Who Writes the Minutes?* Minutes are usually written by the secretary of the committee, but this task may be delegated to an assistant so that the secretary may be free to direct the progress of the meeting—if it needs direction by him. Minute writing is good

practice for the assistant. Further, it saves the time of the secretary, although he should always edit the record carefully. He is responsible!

Sometimes a stenographic record may be kept from which the secretary can prepare the minutes later on. Ordinarily, however, it is not necessary to take a verbatim report of committee meetings. The secretary, by that system of shorthand which consists in abbreviating familiar words and eliminating unnecessary ones, can usually make a sufficiently accurate memorandum of what has occurred to record the proceedings precisely.

(c) *Accuracy in the Minutes.* Clarity and accuracy of expression are essential to the proper writing of minutes. The secretary should make sure, before the committee goes on to other business, that he understands thoroughly the action which has been taken. If the nature of this action is not absolutely clear in his own mind, his confusion is almost certain to increase when he puts the minutes in their final form. Unless he is positive that he understands, he should request the meeting to listen to his wording of the resolution or action and correct it then and there in accordance with the understanding of all present.

(d) *Contents of the Minutes.* Manifestly the minutes should contain the name of the body that is meeting, the place, the date, the hour of convening and adjourning, and the names of the presiding officer and of the persons present. The minutes should include a specific statement of all seconded motions and of the action taken upon them. Practice varies considerably, however, as to whether the names of the mover and the seconder should be included. This should probably be done when a matter of policy is involved which is partly interpreted by the names of the persons who proposed and seconded the motion. On the other hand, if the motion is merely the sense of the meeting, following a general discussion which was initiated from the agenda itself, there would seem to be no need for a record of the mover and the seconder.

(e) *Literary Style of Minutes.* Minutes need not always be stated in the formal style of "Voted: That, . . ." They can ordinarily be written in an informal style. That makes them more attractive and easier to read than if phrased in dry and formal verbiage. Grace of expression takes nothing from the value of the record. Thus instead of saying, "Voted: To approve recommendation of the Committee on Ways and Means for . . ." the minutes might read, "Upon presentation of the budget for the year 1946 by Peter J. Smith, the chair-

man of the Ways and Means Committee, the following action was taken: . . ."

Some minutes are unduly brief and give only the bare motions, without any illumination as to the reason why those actions are taken. Other minutes are inordinately prolix and reproduce too much of the discussion. Good practice is to include only such a summary of the discussion as interprets the action taken. This material, after months or years have elapsed, may explain the reason for certain decisions. The wording, of course, should be simple, clear, and definite.

The minutes should be rendered in writing by the secretary as soon as possible after the meeting, sent to the chairman for correction, and then copied into the minute book.

(*f*) *Appearance of the Minutes.* Uniformity in the appearance of all the minutes of an agency is desirable. The secretary should follow a standard practice in respect to the width of the margin, the spacing between lines, and other details of arrangement. Original material, for example, may be double-spaced with a relatively narrow margin; material that is quoted, as well as formal resolutions presented to the meeting, may be single-spaced and indented. Rules may also be adopted and followed, according to the wishes of the social agency, in respect to the capitalization of the name of the organization; the indentation of the first lines of paragraphs; the use of subheads or of marginal captions in capital letters or in red (if the organization uses a two-color typewriter ribbon), to indicate the various items of business; the writing of sums of money both in words and in figures; and the amount of space to be left at the top and bottom of each page.

(*g*) *Distribution of the Minutes.* Many secretaries mail copies or abstracts of the minutes to all members of the committee, either directly after the meeting or enclosed with the notice of the next one. This procedure refreshes the members' memories as to what has happened and reminds them of duties which have been assigned to them; informs absent members of what has occurred so that they may keep in touch with committee activities; and, if any error has been made, affords the opportunity for prompt correction.

If the minutes are sent to all members of the committee, their reading at the next meeting may be dispensed with and time saved. The minutes should, however, be approved, and the approval should be made a matter of record. We have been told by a lawyer

board member that the minutes of the next meeting should not say, "Reading of the minutes of last meeting was dispensed with." That might invalidate the action recorded there. Rather, say, "The minutes of the last meeting were approved as presented." We personally in our organization always have the president or chairman correct and O.K. the minutes before anything further is done with them.

(*h*) *Approving and Correcting the Minutes.* Whether the actual reading of the minutes is dispensed with or not, action should be taken at the first subsequent meeting to approve the minutes. Both the secretary and the chairman should sign them, dating their signatures. The signatures are a great comfort to the secretary if anyone at some future time claims the minutes are incorrect. The fact that they have been approved and that the approval has been certified may eliminate a great deal of unnecessary argument and recrimination.

If conflict develops as to the accuracy of the minutes and the instructions of the chairman are not sufficient to settle the argument, the correct wording may be decided by vote of the committee. This vote should be recorded in the minutes of the meeting at which the correction is made. Simple corrections are usually written into the minutes exactly as is the correction of any typographical error. Correction of official minutes should be initialed and dated in the margin by the secretary.

Every opportunity should be given for full expression of opinion by committee members on the correction of the minutes, so that all interested persons may be agreed as to the policies to which the organization has committed itself.

(*i*) *Preserving the Minutes.* Good minutes deserve to be well kept, and important ones must be carefully preserved.

The minutes of a committee which has great responsibility, handles large sums of money, or determines matters of vital policy may well be kept in a loose-leaf book with serially numbered pages. The book should have a lock to its binder, and the key should be kept in the possession of the secretary.

The minutes of a board of directors should always be kept in the organization's safe. The safe should be fireproof or in a fireproof building.

The name of the organization and that of the committee may be embossed in gilt on the cover of the board's minute book.

If the minute book is shared by the board of directors and the executive committee, it may well include the constitution and by-

laws of the organization so that they will be available for easy reference.

A loose-leaf book with serially numbered pages is better than a bound book, because the minutes can be typed on the loose leaves and additional pages can be inserted. The pages should be numbered to prevent the removal of one and the substitution of another.

Most committees can use satisfactorily the ordinary three-ring, loose-leaf book from which the sheets are removed annually to be filed or permanently bound.

The secretary should always bring the minute book to a meeting even though minutes have been sent out in advance, since those of other meetings may need to be referred to.

If not put in the safe, the minute books should be kept under supervision in a definite place in the office of the organization. They should be accessible only to authorized persons. A minute book should not be removed from the office except with the consent of the committee secretary, and if it is he should insist on its prompt return. It is better to have a copy made of the material to which reference is desired than to permit the removal of the book itself from the custody of the secretary.

(*j*) *Indexing the Record of Actions.* Reference to actions of committees is facilitated if the minutes are indexed. It is sometimes difficult to find in the minutes of several years' activities the exact place at which action was recorded to authorize some financial expenditure or some change in policy. Subheads which indicate the subject on the action may be typed above the paragraph which actually records the action. In our organization we always number these subheads in sequence for ease in reference. Gummed tabs may be stuck on the side of the page, with a word which suggests the subject inked on each tab.

A card file or a visible index may be made. In this there should be a card for each subject, and on the proper card each action should be recorded with the date, page, and paragraph.

Some minute books have in the front a page or half page for each letter of the alphabet. The subject indexed is merely written under the proper letter. This last device, however, is not very flexible, and a great deal of searching is sometimes necessary.

A visible index in a book about the size of the minute book would perhaps be best if the minutes are continually referred to at committee meetings.

One community chest budget committee assigns a page in a loose-

leaf book to each member agency. A carbon copy of the minutes of each meeting is cut up and the section which refers to a given agency is pasted on its page, with the date the action was taken. This procedure gives a complete record of the action taken on every request of each agency.

(*k*) *Attendance Records.* The minutes of all but the largest and most informal committees should include a record of those who attend. This record may be made by the secretary on his copy of the agenda of the meeting as the members come into the room.

Some agencies use a mimeographed form for recording the intention and actual attendance of committee members. At the left are typed the names of committee members. After them are two columns headed "yes" and "no" in which check marks show the result of telephoning the committee member before the meeting. At the meeting, the secretary checks the actual attendance.

If the group is large, or if the secretary is too busy to check the attendance or does not know all the members, it is well to have cards distributed, signed, and turned over to the secretary before the members leave. For this purpose plain white cards may be used. Some social agencies have attendance cards printed or mimeographed, with spaces provided for the name of the person and of the organization which he represents, as well as the name of the committee whose meeting he is attending.

In addition the minutes may well include a record of those not present. If the minutes sent to all members of the committee bear this double record, it is hoped that those who attended will get a proper thrill from seeing their names listed among those who were there and that those who were absent will be filled with compunction at the evidence of their non-participation.

For a large committee there might well be kept a detailed attendance report that shows the percentage of attendance of each member from the beginning of the organizational year or from that of the committee's activity. The members might be listed in descending order of percentage attendance. Members often take pride in standing toward the top of the list and endeavor to avoid a poor percentage.

The record of attendance could be put in graphic form, with bars of different lengths to correspond with each member's percentage of attendance.

Records and/or graphs, duplicated on the ditto machine or the

mimeograph, if sent to the committee members with the notice of the next meeting, might have a wholesome effect on attendance.

PUBLICITY ON THE MEETING. The secretary, as we have seen, is responsible for the records of the committee, for the minutes, and for the attendance record. In addition he is responsible for the less formal record of the committee's activities which is given in newspaper publicity. In conference with the chairman he must determine at what stage of the proceedings of the committee publicity is desirable, and at that point he may invite reporters to be present at the meeting. If the proceedings are confidential, however, he may arrange with the reporters for an interview after the meeting, or he may send stories to the newspapers on what has occurred. If the organization has a director of public relations, the secretary may either arrange for him to attend the meeting and secure the necessary information then or may give it to him after the meeting. Sometimes the chairman of the committee or a publicity-experienced member can handle the public statement. No matter by whom handled, the publicity release should quote the chairman, not the secretary, as the announcing authority. Publicity on meetings is often as important in getting results as is the meeting itself. The alert secretary will see that no opportunities for constructive interpretation are missed.

The secretary must have an eye and ear for publicity material. At the same time, he must remember to enforce upon members of the committee the confidential nature of some of the business. They must be warned against repeating to anyone confidential matter which might gravely affect the relationship of their organization to another or to the general public. For example, serious results have come from the indiscretions of community chest budget committee members who have failed to keep to themselves their unfavorable opinions of the presentation of certain agencies. Possible co-operation on the part of such an agency in raising its standards has thus been completely lost because of criticism which got around not too subterraneously to the organization concerned. A canny secretary guards his minutes and warns his committee members to guard their tongues.

FOLLOW-UP ON THE MEETING'S DECISIONS. One meeting with its minutes does not make a committee. A committee is usually engaged in a continuing activity. The secretary or chairman is responsible for seeing that it has enduring life and effectiveness. After each meeting

the secretary should make in his tickler file or on his calendar memoranda of matters which are to be attended to. As soon as the minutes are O.K.'d he may send a marked copy of the minutes to each committee member to whom a job has been assigned, calling his attention to that responsibility. If the secretary wants to be a little fancier, he may send to each member a special letter which contains the excerpt from the minutes which authorizes this responsibility. It is good teamwork for the secretary to send to the chairman a carbon copy of each letter of this kind, so that he may know that this detail has been handled.

At the time for beginning or ending each assigned task, the secretary should follow up the individual responsible for it by telephone call or letter. Written reminders may be signed with the chairman's name, as has already been suggested.

The chairman should also be notified of any responsibility that he has in connection with the committee work, such as following up members, and so on.

In this follow-up work the secretary must have in mind the rules of diplomacy and not be over-insistent. He should ask, without implied criticism, how the committee member is getting on and how he as secretary can help him, even though he knows the member is not getting on at all. Let the chairman, not the secretary, be the critical member and the official prod. The secretary can call to the chairman's attention the problems created by committee workers who fail to do their duties, but it is up to the chairman to get results from them or to secure others to do the work. A further reminder of responsibility should be given in the notice of the meeting. In the notice the secretary can list the names of those who are to make reports on behalf of various committees and projects.

No committee can be effective unless it carries through to completion the projects assigned to it on a definite basis of responsibility. The secretary is ordinarily the person who must see that that responsibility is fulfilled.

EDUCATING THE COMMITTEE. In addition, the secretary must keep the committee informed on the subjects for which it is responsible. Minutes and notices of meetings are not sufficient for this purpose. The alert secretary will send to committee members other pertinent material, such as pamphlets on subjects connected with their committee responsibilities, clippings from newspapers, and copies of reports from other social agencies or of the annual report of the organization concerned. When the secretary returns from a social

work conference or a visit to a social agency in another city, he might summarize his more significant impressions and enclose them with a circular letter which asks opinions from the committee members.

Some secretaries mail periodical bulletins to all the committees of their organization. In this way the members are informed of the work of other committees as well as of their own. With this help, the members may more readily co-ordinate their work with that of other groups in the organization.

We personally in our own organization present to the Board of the Community Chest and Council at its monthly meeting a mimeographed "Confidential Report" compiled from the weekly reports made to us by staff executives and from our daily "log" or calendar. Our report is mailed, after the meeting, with the financial report, to members who were not present. The fact that the report is "confidential" may make it more thoroughly read—"inside stuff" has an appeal!

Books of significance may be passed around among committee members. Bibliographies also might be sent to the committee, with the suggestion that the secretary will be glad to get for a member any of the books on the list.

As a source of information for both old and new board and committee members, the secretary may prepare and distribute a summary of policies as revealed through the minutes of the committee over a period of years. New board members and members of standing committees should receive copies of the constitution and bylaws, marked with reference to their duties.

If he has the time, the secretary will find it worth while to call at least once a year on each of his committee members, to ask for their suggestions on the work of the committee, and to answer any questions which they may have. In addition to these calls, he may well call upon persons who are absent from meetings, express regret at their absence, describe what has been done at the meeting, and encourage attendance at the next one. Personal attention will pay large dividends in increased interest and participation.

The secretary should by all means call on new committee members, explain to them the work of the organization, and answer their questions. He can give them informative material, such as a history of the organization, a copy of the constitution and bylaws, and any other literature or reports which would help to bring them up to date on the work of the organization and of the committee. A new

committee member might be urged to come to the office and read the minutes of his committee.

If the executive cannot call on all the committee members he might send other qualified staff members (if he has them) in his place.

When an important speaker conversant with the kind of work the committee is doing is in the city, members of the committee may be urged to attend a special or general meeting at which he may be heard. Members may also be urged to attend local, state, or national conferences of social work and similar meetings which will help them to do their committee work better.

If they have time, committee members may secure more direct contact with the work of the organization by actually seeing it in action. The boys' work committee of a social settlement should visit the boys' clubs and classes. A member of a case work committee of a family society might go with a visitor to the homes of certain selected clients of the organization or discuss with the case worker specific problems of these families. Committee members may attend staff meetings of the organization, either to listen, to participate in the discussion, or to describe the work of the committee on which they are serving. It may be wholesome for a committee member to spend a day or half a day in the office and observe what goes on. He will probably go away with a vastly increased respect for the complexity and difficulty of the work of the organization and for the competence with which it is handled.

JOBS FOR COMMITTEE MEMBERS. All the principles already discussed regarding stimulation of the interest of board members through assignment of tasks for the agency also apply to committee members. The thoughtful secretary will know the talents and abilities of each committee member and will be sure that these qualities are exercised in the work of the organization when opportunity offers.

However, the secretary must show discretion in determining the amount of work to give a committee member. If the secretary is in proper touch with the members, he will know the amount of leisure each has, how much energy he possesses, and how deep his interest is in the work of the organization. The secretary will neither overload an indifferent member and thus drive him out of the service of the organization nor underload an able person. He will not give too much work to a person who is not strong and who may conscientiously do so much as to cause an actual collapse. We have seen this happen!

On the other hand, the secretary will not underestimate the interest of a committee member and fail to give him enough work to keep up his interest. People will do an astonishing amount of volunteer work if they feel that they are really responsible for it. The secretary must, however, look out for the committee member who starts a job enthusiastically and then leaves it half finished for a staff member to complete. One such experience with a member should be sufficient to preclude giving him any other important responsibility until he is really ready to carry through.

Of course the secretary will usually see that the chairman applies the ideas expressed above. It is the secretary's job, though, to think them up.

FREQUENCY OF MEETINGS. After all these considerations regarding effective committees (and each item is important) one final question remains—the interval between meetings. The secretary must make sure that a committee does not meet so frequently that the members feel overworked or so infrequently that they lose interest and feel that they have been appointed to no purpose. Important committees should usually have regularly stated meetings, perhaps monthly. Others may meet less frequently. On the other hand, weekly meetings may be necessary for some committees with urgent work. Sometimes committees may meet still more frequently, although not over long periods of time.

It is well to see that everyone on the committee is consulted when there is new work to be done. The chairman should not assume responsibility for carrying out projects which have not been agreed to by the committee. Neither should the secretary form the habit of transacting the committee's business with the chairman and of leaving the committee nothing to do. If a person accepts membership on a committee, he presumably expects to live up to its obligations.

It is sometimes wise to postpone a meeting by having a notice sent to the members or telephoned when there is not enough business to hold their attention.

The committee should decide when it has finished its assigned task. The organization should have no committees that are not active. The fact that a person believes he is a member of a committee which really is inactive may keep him from rendering other service to this or some other organization.

HANDLING "DEAD" MEMBERS. "Dead" members should not be kept on a committee. If a member becomes inactive and his interest cannot be revived, he should be dropped. Some organizations have

adopted the excellent rule that failure to attend three successive meetings of a committee, without adequate written excuse, automatically constitutes a resignation. If the committee is important and the member thinks he gains some prestige by serving on it, he is likely to think more of the committee if it is strict in requiring attendance.

The executive who has in mind the good of his organization and of the people whom it serves will cultivate his committees by a judicious selection of the means mentioned in the foregoing pages. He will reap a crop of effective service and strong organizational life which can be grown by no other methods.

QUESTIONS

1. In the committee work of some typical social agency you know, does the secretary plan the agenda with the chairman? If so, when and how?

2. How is the business stated on the agenda?

3. Is each member of the committee given a copy of the agenda and exhibits?

4. From what sources is material for committee meetings assembled?

5. In what order is the business presented, and why?

6. How is the material for consideration adapted to the size and make-up of the committee?

7. In what form, mechanically, are the agenda and exhibits presented?

8. What use is made of demonstrations, personal advocates of projects, visits of inspection, and the like?

9. What special aids does the committee have for the preservation of its material?

10. What part do the chairman and the chairmen of the subcommittees play in the meeting?

11. What is the secretary's part in the meeting?

12. What material, in general, appears in the minutes?

13. Who writes the minutes?

14. What steps are taken to insure their accuracy?

15. What general style is followed in them?

16. What standards of form or appearance are followed?

17. How are the minutes distributed?

18. How are they approved and corrected?

19. How are they preserved?

20. Are the minutes indexed? If so, how?

21. Are attendance records kept? If so, how?
22. How is publicity on the meetings handled?
23. How are the decisions of the meeting translated into action?
24. How is the committee educated in the work of the agency?
25. What other service do committee members render in the agency?
26. How often are meetings held?
27. How are "dead" members handled?
28. How do you think the procedures might be improved?

Chapter VII

The President

IMPORTANCE OF THE PRESIDENT. Responsibilities greater than those of the chairman of a committee rest upon the chairman or president of an organization. A strong and active president can be of vital help in developing a strong social agency. The executive, the staff, the boards, and the committees of the organization can render their best service only when they work under a capable presiding officer. He supplies prestige, leadership, inspiration, morale, and unfailing support for the board, the executive, and the staff.

PERSONAL QUALITIES REQUIRED. The president's personal qualities are important. We would not venture that any president will have all the qualities described below, yet any of them that he does have will come in handy. We have had some presidents, though, who came pretty close to filling this bill of particulars.

The president should be as much of a leader in community life as possible. He should be a person whose personality and achievements the community respects. He should be influential among other leaders in the community, winning them readily to his proposals by the force of his example, by the cogency of his ideals, and by the power of his reputation. In general, he should have had distinguished executive experience in either business, professional, or civic affairs, because this will help him to understand the problems of management and organization that are involved in the work of a social agency. He will thus presumably have learned how to delegate responsibility and how to avoid interference with the person to whom a job is assigned. He should have sufficient control of his own time to carry on the duties of the presidency. He should be a person of even temper, broad understanding, and large energy. His personal charm should make people glad to work with him. He should be sympathetic with the aims of social work and with those of his own agency. Each of the qualities mentioned is desirable. All in combination would be marvelous!

These qualities, indeed, are so difficult to find in one person that

the nominating committee of the social agency will do well to search for a long time for a man who presents as many of them as possible. The committee should then do its utmost on behalf of the agency to secure the service of the man who happily possesses them in large measure.

Here, of course, "he" is used generically and means "she" as well as "he." The woman president is likely already to have won recognition through community service. It may be well to ask her to reorganize her time and to drop other important activities before she enters upon the presidency of an important agency. Generally one presidency at a time is enough!

AS CHAIRMAN. The president should be the embodiment of those virtues of effective and courteous leadership in participative group discussion which have already been prescribed for committee chairmen. Utilizing these skills, the president should preside ordinarily over all legal meetings of the social agency, including its annual meeting and those of its board of trustees and its executive committee.

In addition, for his own information he should, as far as practicable, attend committee meetings. He need not go to all meetings. Rather, with the help of the executive, if necessary, he should decide to which meetings his presence will be of value and in which the matters under consideration are of sufficient importance to justify the expenditure of his time. He should have especially in mind his duty to attend these meetings at which his appearance will add to the morale of the group—for example, meetings of a general campaign organization.

AS INTERPRETER. One of the important tasks of the president is interpretation. He will stand as the personification of the work of the agency in the eyes of the community. Therefore he should speak on the agency's work whenever possible—informally and in conversation among groups of his friends and associates at social dinners and luncheons of civic clubs and similar organizations to which he belongs. He should also be willing to speak publicly in behalf of the organization when called upon. Special arrangements can often be made with important groups for him to talk on the agency's work. As a volunteer, he can usually give a much more disinterested and potent statement than can any paid member of the staff. Through all his contacts, informal and formal, the president can seek for opportunities to clear up misapprehensions, answer criticisms, disarm objection, and win friends.

SECURING RESPONSIBLE COMMITTEE CHAIRMEN AND VOLUNTEERS. Another of his tasks is to secure able committee chairmen who will be responsible to him for their performance. He must consult with them regarding the make-up of their committees. With the secretary's help, he must follow up committee assignments and see that the work is properly done. If a committee chairman fails to do his duty, the president must get after him vigorously but tactfully. If the chairman is a complete failure, the president may have to ask for his resignation and secure someone else in his place. The president must be patient but fearless when the good of the organization requires vigorous action.

The president's personality and ability may also be applied to getting influential people to do special work for the organization. For example, he might confer with public authorities in respect to their share in the work to be done in the field in which the social agency operates. Or, he might deal personally with the president of some public utility for its co-operation in publicity.

AS SOLICITOR AND AMBASSADOR. The president should not be responsible for the routine solicitation of gifts in the organization's financial campaign. On the other hand, he should be willing to call with solicitors on important contributors with whom his influence will count. His responsibility in these respects is not fixed; he has in a sense a roving commission to do what may be judged necessary in view of his own capacity and of the needs of specific situations.

Generally, if the agency is a member of a community council of social agencies, the president will serve as one of the delegates to the council. The other delegate (there are usually two) will usually be the executive of the organization.

Again, the president may serve as ambassador in negotiations with other social agencies—in helping to develop mutual agreements, smoothing out misunderstandings, and conciliating disputes as to jurisdiction. In like manner, he may handle complaints or objections in respect to the work of the organization on the part of contributors or citizens whose injured feelings his influence will help to soothe. Misunderstandings may be cleared up more easily by him than by the less prominent personality of an executive of the agency. In this sense the president should be a trouble shooter. He will meet emergencies with ready diplomacy and with sound knowledge of the agency's work—and of the objectors' points of view.

SERVICE WITHIN THE AGENCY. In addition to these external relationships, the president should have contacts within the agency. He

should advise with the executive on the problems of the organization. A definite hour and day each week might well be decided upon, at which the president would meet with the executive, either in the organization's office or his own, to discuss progress, to give advice, and to offer help. In addition, the president should be available for conference with the executive whenever the need arises. He should visit the agency's office or institution frequently enough to become familiar with its problems and its methods of organization and service. He should keep informed on its work by reading the minutes of its main committees and any important committee reports. Ex officio a member of all standing committees, he should at least occasionally attend their meetings and receive their notices.

KEEPING UP TO DATE. In addition to these specific responsibilities, the president should keep as well informed as possible on the general progress of social work and on specific activity in his agency's field. He may wish to read social work magazines, both general and specific, and important books that will add to his knowledge and usefulness. The tactful executive will judiciously feed to the president as much material of this kind as, by experimenting, he finds that official will consume. The executive will not burden the president with unnecessary details, but he will promote his interest in every practicable way. The executive will give that interest as much material to feed upon as it can digest. He will help the president to understand the problems and potentialities of the agency and to exert dynamic and progressive leadership. The president, in order to develop his knowledge of the work of the agency, may well attend such meetings as the national, regional, or state conferences of social work or those of the national organization of which the agency is a branch or member. At these meetings he should be encouraged to speak on behalf of the agency and to make addresses. He should represent the agency frequently at public meetings in its own community. He should in these ways be part of the internal working force of the organization.

Intimacy with the work of the agency, however, should not impel the president to interfere with its management. While advising and aiding the executive, the president should not go over the administrator's head and try to run the organization. The president and executive should come to early agreement as to their respective areas of responsibility and their effective interrelation. Thus a good president will quickly learn the responsibilities of the executive and will leave to him their execution. The president will interpose only

when he has reason to think that these duties are not being properly performed or when the executive asks for his advice. The president's internal relationship with the agency should be that of helper and not that of interferer.

Every president will be stronger in some areas of activity than in others. The zealous president will study his own capacities and make them count to the utmost. The ingenious executive will study the capacities of the president and utilize them to the fullest extent consistent with the patience and good will of that exceedingly important officer.

QUESTIONS

1. What are the personal qualities of the president of a social agency with which you are familiar?
2. How does he handle the meetings over which he presides?
3. What does he do about attending other meetings?
4. How far does he go in interpreting the work of the agency?
5. What is his part in securing committee chairmen?
6. To what extent does he enforce their responsibilities?
7. Does he solicit funds? If so, to what extent?
8. To what extent does he act as ambassador to other agencies, and to contributors and citizens?
9. What service does he render within the agency?
10. How does he keep up to date on the work of the agency and of work in its field?
11. What relation does he have to the management?
12. What improvement do you think there might be in any of these respects?

Chapter VIII

The Qualifications of an Executive

IMPORTANCE OF THE EXECUTIVE. Quite as diversified as the responsibilities and skills required of the captain of a ship are those of the executive secretary or director of the average social agency. Among the activities for which he is directly or indirectly responsible are the following: He must initiate plans for the effective development of the agency's human service. He must provide material, leadership, and secretarial service for the board and committees of the organization. He must conceive and execute an adequate public relations program. He must prepare and present a financial budget. He must control expenditures within that budget. He must devise and execute plans for the raising of funds unless the agency is a member of a community chest. If it is a chest member (as most reputable private agencies now are), he should aid the chest's financial and public relations activities. He is responsible for the equipment and arrangement of his agency's office or institutional plant. He is responsible for the employment and direction of the staff and, through the staff, for the professional care of the clients of the organization. He must participate effectively in the joint planning and action of a community council of social agencies. In sum, he must be professional leader, promoter, business manager, planner, supervisor, coordinator, and ambassador.

He can be certain that everything he has ever learned will come in handy at some time. Indeed, he will wish continually that he knew more than he does. Almost infinite are the demands made on the skill and capacities of the social agency executive. Equally great, however, are the satisfactions to be derived by the executive from the use of those skills and capacities in human service.

The executive is the keystone in the arch of the agency's service. On one side is the governing board with its committees; on the other, the employed staff. The executive is the medium through which the decisions of the board and its committees are transmitted

to the staff. Through him, conversely, the proposals of the staff are transmitted and its activities interpreted to the board.

But do not think that the executive stands alone in his administrative responsibilities. In most agencies, except the very smallest, he has one or more assistants to whom he delegates various degrees of administrative responsibility in one or more areas of agency operation. These assistants need, as far as possible, the same kinds of skill and capacity as does the executive. Generally, in fact, they are likely sometime to become executives in their own right. Although, for simplicty's sake, in this chapter and the three succeeding ones we shall speak particularly of the executive, we trust you will understand that usually we also mean the sub-executive or the supervisor. They, too, are administrators.

FULL AUTHORITY NECESSARY. To live up to his title, the executive must have complete authority for carrying out all policies. He must have undivided responsibility. No organization can succeed in the long run if it has two or three executives, each directly responsible to the board of directors. Such an organization is hardly more likely to survive than a two-headed calf or a three-legged chicken. The executive must be left free by his board to plan, to propose, and to execute as long as he holds the position.

DURATION OF AN EXECUTIVE'S SERVICE. Usually the executive has no contract with his organization for any definite period of service. Often constitutions or bylaws provide that the executive shall be employed during the pleasure of the board. Presumably that pleasure will endure so long as the board feels that the executive is doing the work better and at less cost than anyone else who could be employed, for the salary that is available or might be made available.

Granting the continued "pleasure" of the board, the executive presumably will remain in the position until some other opening develops in which his experience and ability will enable him to make a greater contribution to human welfare than in his present job. Usually, but not always, opportunity for greater usefulness carries with it a higher salary. Certainly, however, increased pay alone should not be the only reason for change.

The executive should not try to hang on to his job if he feels that his board is dissatisfied with him or if he gets into a rut in relation to the work of the organization and to the community. He may find it wise to leave after a few years, during which he has made his greatest possible contribution. From this point forward someone else with other skills and capacities may carry on the work better

than he would have done. Agencies and communities need different executive qualities at different phases in their development. Yesterday, perhaps, a rugged social pioneer was needed; now, a suave coordinator.

During the last two generations of rapid expansion of social work, executives have tended to change jobs frequently. Some personnel offices of the national agencies have refused to recommend for new positions local executives who have been less than three years in their old positions. This would seem the minimum time, ordinarily, in which an executive could get acquainted with the agency and the community and render a full measure of service; the minimum time, too, in which the executive could demonstrate his full capacity and be given a fair trial. Of course three years is much too short a term, generally, for executive service, though some terms, unhappily, should be ended much sooner because of mutual incompatibility.

Doubtless in the past the turnover would have been less if some agencies had had a more liberal policy toward executive salaries. Agencies often have taken their executives for granted and failed to reward devoted and skilled service by increases in compensation proportionate to the individual executive's increased value to his agency and to the community. Then, when the disappointed executive has been lured away to a larger agency and a bigger salary, the bereaved organization has discovered it had to pay more for a newcomer, who has had to learn the agency and the community all over again, than it would have had to pay to keep the departed veteran.

On the other hand an executive may stay a lifetime, continually refreshing his point of view and enhancing his skills by all possible means and becoming the increasingly trusted leader of agency service and of community thought and action. Through study, conference, and observation, he will add to his skills as the needs of the agency and the community change and as new techniques and philosophies are developed in social work. Increasingly a part of the community, he will not become narrowly parochial. Rather, aware of all that is pertinent in the social thought and practice of the nation and the world, he will grow steadily in usefulness. Through the executive's farsighted and long-continued services, his own agency and community may become examples from which agencies and communities far removed may learn how better to conduct their affairs. The executive thus lengthily and alertly serving may become a great servant and citizen not only of his community but of the na-

tion and of the world. There have been, and are, such. There will be more. Humanity needs them.

The conscientious executive may regard himself as a keen-cutting, non-rusting, well-tempered, self-sharpening tool for human service. He will lend himself to each specific use as long as that service is the best to which he as a human instrumentality may be put.

QUALITIES OF AN EXECUTIVE. Great responsibilities and opportunities wait upon the social work executive. To carry out and fulfill them, unusual personal qualities are required. Some of these are inherent. Many others can be acquired through persistent striving and practice. If you doubt that desirable qualities may be developed by practice, read in Benjamin Franklin's *Autobiography* how that eventually distinguished citizen labored to acquire the virtues he wished to possess. He made himself a fit tool for the achievement he desired and attained.

(*a*) *Leadership.* Leadership is perhaps first among the necessary qualities of the executive. If he has everything else except leadership, he falls short of the highest requirements of his position. Yet, possessing this quality, he may lack other presumably essential qualities and still be successful. Leadership is individual, unstandardized, and close to genius. It is that quality which makes both lay and professional workers labor enthusiastically under the guidance of the leader. His spirit will be like a dancing flame. It will never fail—it is a vital force! The executive must be daring and venturesome when new areas of service are to be explored, yet safe and sane in the conservation of the agency's reputation and funds. Leadership takes many forms. It is intangible—but essential.

(*b*) *Intelligence.* The executive should have many other qualities which will help to make his leadership effective. Intelligence of a high order is fundamental. The tasks of the executive are too varied and too complex to be handled by a "dumbbell." You have to be smart if you are to administer!

(*c*) *Competence.* Professional competence also is required. The executive must know his job—both what to do and how to do it. Preferably he should have come up from the ranks in his organization or in a similar one. Thus he will understand by actual experience the problems his staff has to handle. He should know, better than any one else in the organization, at least one phase of its work, and he should know other aspects of the organization passably well. Neither board nor staff has any respect for the person who is not

professionally competent. As a recent Lenten speaker said, "Do the ordinary in an extraordinary way!"

(*d*) *Industry.* Industry is necessary in a successful executive. A lazy administrator produces a lazy staff. There is too much to be done in social work to make it anything short of disastrous for an agency to employ a languid executive or worker. The leader should be the hardest worker on the staff. He should set an example for all others to follow. He should never ask them to do anything in the way of exertion or expenditure of time that he himself is unwilling to do. Extra performance is one of the penalties of leadership.

(*e*) *Originality.* Industry, however, is not enough. It must be illumined by originality in thought and action. The executive must not be bound by conventional ways of doing things or accomplishing the work of his organization. He must be seeking continually for better methods and for improved combinations of procedures. An experimenter and pioneer, always!

(*f*) *Breadth and Length of Vision.* But originality can only be effective if the executive sees his job as a whole. He must know the connection of each phase of his organization's work with every other phase. He must see the relationship of his agency to other agencies and to the needs of the whole community. Looking beyond the obvious current activities of his organization, he must plan their development in terms of long-time policy and in relation to a continuous program of service to the community. He must sometimes sacrifice immediate, superficial gains for later, permanent benefits. Always, possible personal or petty organization advantage must give way to the well-being of social service generally and of the community as a whole. The executive must visualize the needs that are likely to develop and the measures which will be necessary to meet them.

(*g*) *Initiative.* Vision without action accomplishes little. To be a leader the executive must be a self-starter. He dare not wait for "something to turn up." He must have the "gumption" and the ingenuity to discover what needs to be done, as well as the courage to do it or to get it done. This means creative ability. The executive should always be discontented, seeking further effectiveness for his organization and for himself.

(*h*) *Imagination.* With initiative goes imagination. The executive must see the point of view of the client, of the board member, of the staff member, of other social agencies, and of the community.

He must make his decisions by putting himself in the other fellows' places and imagining how the proposed decision would affect them.

(*i*) *Realism.* Although the executive's perpetually discontented head is to be above the clouds of immediate necessity, seeing the stars of the future and the universality of human needs, at the same time he must keep his feet on the ground and walk in the reality of the present. He must possess common sense, His leadership must be practical. His vision must be clear, not fuzzy. Mental astigmatism is more dangerous than the ocular variety. Properly ground eyeglasses can rectify the visual error, but nothing can be done for the executive who consistently "sees double" in organizational or community relations.

(*j*) *Courage.* It is hardly necessary to say that the executive must have the courage to carry out the promptings of vision and the dictates of common sense. The ethics of the social work profession and the commands of conscience alike enjoin the executive "first to be sure that he is right and then to go ahead."

(*k*) *Objectivity.* To make decisions to which he can adhere, the executive must be objective in his attitudes. His heart, though warm, must be ruled by a cool head.

(*l*) *Knowledge.* Then, too, the executive must have vast and accurate knowledge. He must know himself, his job, his board and committee members (including their hobbies and their likes and dislikes as the means of an effective approach to their interests), his staff, the people served by his agency, the other agencies that work in the community, social conditions in his community, and the attitude of the public toward the work of his agency. If he does not know the many pertinent facts in any situation that touches his work he must at least know where he can learn about them.

(*m*) *Capacity for Growth.* The executive must continually grow in understanding and capacity through a study of himself, of others, and of literature in his areas of responsibility and other fields, as well as through the application of this increasing knowledge to the problems which he faces. He must keep up to date through attendance at conferences, institutes, and refresher courses and through visiting agencies like his own in other communities. You cannot be a leader unless you keep ahead of the crowd!

(*n*) *Loyalty.* Obviously the executive must be loyal to his organization and to his job. He should never criticize his organization publicly or express dissatisfaction with his job, unless he is ready to resign. Loyalty, too, means doing his best all the time, in every pos-

sible way, for the organization which employs him. Loyalty to the organization in word and deed are fundamental in an executive who expects the same quality from his board, his committees, and his staff.

The executive should also be loyal to other competent social agencies in the community. All are essential threads in the fabric of community service. Ill that is spoken of one will adversely affect all.

(*o*) *Evenness of Disposition.* The executive must keep his temper, for if he loses it he loses control over himself, and if he loses his self-control he loses control over others. An executive should at all times endeavor to control the situation in which he finds himself.

The executive will not "bawl out" an offender or throw in his face the more subtle but deep-burning acid of sarcasm. Bursts of anger create an antagonism that has to be overcome. Indeed, the leader will be slow to blame. If he really understands human nature, he will restrain his condemnation of what he considers misconduct. On the contrary, he will be interested in finding out why the offender acts as he does. Then the "boss" will try to help the culprit to control the causes of such conduct with a view to modifying them.

(*p*) *Other Desirable Qualities.* Here are further qualities needed in this field, as suggested by a variety of executives: analytical capacity; impartiality; courtesy; tact; modesty; humor; accuracy; promptness; ability to learn through criticism; openness to suggestion; diversity of interests; helpfulness to staff; ease and informality; adaptability; serenity; capacity for concentration; open-mindedness; frankness; honesty; sincerity; simplicity; conscientiousness; kindness; accessibility; fairness to all; avoidance of worry; no buck-passing; reservation of judgment; tolerance; reliability; resourcefulness; healthfulness; pleasingness of appearance; ability to delegate authority; capacity for quick, sound decision; capacity for group leadership; builder of staff morale; patience; persistence; skill in presenting proposals; and here is a final one:—

Intuition, a quality which can hardly be consciously cultivated. Intuition is a sense of the ripening of events for action. Probably it is a combination of an integrated philosophy of personal life with a knowledge of the flow of existence in one's own community and time, backed by the mysterious operations of the subconscious mind. Perhaps it is the Spirit of the Universe at work within you. At any rate—to those who have learned to listen—a still, small voice will sometimes whisper "Wait!" and sometimes the voice will whisper "Go ahead!" And the voice will be right!

Additional personal qualities, selected from "We Want an Executive," recently prepared by the Advisory Committee on Chest-Council Personnel of Community Chests and Councils, Inc., follow:—

A philosophy of life compatible with the duties to be performed.

Pleasure in service in the true sense of the word, in leadership rather than in vested authority.

An interest in seeking out and getting acquainted with the leaders in all fields of work in the community, in meeting and dealing with people from all walks of life, in enlisting the co-operation of fellow citizens.

Ability to work harmoniously with all types of people in all kinds of situations.

A personality that will attract the liking, respect, and confidence of all fellow citizens.

Ability to distinguish the "woods from the trees" in the mass of detail and not get lost in it.

Ability to carry on a variety of programs simultaneously.

Emotional stability.

It is hardly to be expected that any executive or prospective executive will have in superlative degree all the qualities which have been mentioned. Their number and strength will vary from person to person. Experience shows, however, that each of these qualities is worth striving for. The best executive is one who not only is strong in a few of these qualities but also endeavors persistently and earnestly to excel in each one of them.

If you would like to develop your abilities as an executive or subexecutive, you might find it worth while to make a list of those of the qualities described above which you think are important. Add any others you think desirable. Then check the list over every month or so to see what progress you are making. Just thinking about the qualities you desire will help in development.

TRAINING. Personal qualities must be backed up by training and experience.

As far as possible, the executive should possess education and experience, both wide and deep. He should be specially trained by competent schooling and experience in his general field of work. He should have had specific experience which, as already noted, will make him a specialist in at least one phase of that work. Social work now is a ranking profession and this will be increasingly so in the future. As a profession it will provide ample opportunity for executive placement and advancement for people with training and experience. Accredited professional schools of social work are produc-

ing technically trained people in sufficient numbers, and qualified social agencies are providing administrative experience to a sufficient number of executives and sub-executives, to make it unnecessary for a board of directors to employ an executive who is not reasonably well qualified. Too much time would have to be taken by him in learning the agency's work and acquiring the skill which should be at the mental fingertips of a capable executive, to justify the employment of a person untrained and inexperienced in the agency's field of work.

On the other hand, technical skill as a practitioner of social work alone is not sufficient for the executive. Case workers and group workers too often are plunged into executive work without knowing the essentials of managing a social agency. There is no more reason for a boys' club leader, as such, to make a good executive for a settlement, than there is for a doctor to make a good hospital superintendent or for a professor, considered merely as a teacher, to make a good university president. The person chosen for an executive position should at least have had managerial or supervisory experience as assistant to an executive in a well-managed social agency. In addition he should have had, if possible, specific administrative training in a recognized professional school of social work. The task of the executive as a leader of boards, committees, and staff, and as administrative officer of an organization, is entirely different from that of a social technician who deals with individuals or with groups—the clients, patients, or constituents of the social agency. Management requires as much training and experience as any other phase of social work.

BROAD BACKGROUND. More than that, the executive should have education and experience in many fields. He should be a person of broad culture and diversified interests. He should know the principles and practices of other kinds of social work in addition to those of his own agency. He ought to keep abreast of the trends and developments in sociology, individual and social psychology, economics, and political science. He should be familiar with world events and the currents of world opinion. He must be a "man among men" or a "woman among women," able to meet the most cultured and refined people (as well as the most ignorant and least cultured) on their own ground. All that he may learn in school, college, university, and graduate courses, in special training, and in continuous later study will be repaid to him through satisfaction in life and through usefulness on his job.

QUESTIONS

1. List the activities for which the executive is responsible in some typical social agency.
2. What authority does he have for the execution of policies?
3. What is his attitude toward the duration of his service?
4. Does he regard his work as professional?
5. What qualities has he acquired by practice, and how?
6. What other qualities has he?
7. What qualities for successful executive work does he lack?
8. What education has he?
9. What more should he have?
10. What is his professional training and experience?
11. What more should he have?
12. What is his specific experience for this job?
13. How could all the above be improved?

Chapter IX

Self-Management for the Executive

WHAT IS EFFICIENCY? "Efficiency" is an overworked word. Nevertheless it is one that describes the personal skills of an executive and the ways in which he may get his work done easily, quickly, and well. The faculty of effective individual management is sometimes called personal efficiency. Harrington Emerson, in his *Home Course in Personal Efficiency,* which helped to start us on our executive career, says, "Personal efficiency is the easiest, quickest, best, and cheapest way to the desirable things of life." In this chapter some of the easy, quick, good, and economical ways to those things which many executives find desirable in life and work will be discussed. These skills or practices will be useful, moreover, not only to the executive but also to practically everyone in the agency who holds any position that entails the efficient management of his own time.

Overuse of the word "efficiency" has sometimes given it a mechanical and undesirable significance. Nevertheless, efficiency is not incompatible with effective human service. The social worker or executive will find that by the development of methods which seem appropriate among those described below he will be able to accomplish more and better work in less time than otherwise would be possible. He will make the funds available for his work go farther and render better service. He will make more rapid progress in his profession than does the worker who does not strive for effective personal management. Our proposals obviously must be taken not as ends in themselves but merely as the means to economical and effective social service adequately performed.

Efficiency really means the establishment of effective habits of work which release the individual for the constructive and non-routine parts of his job. Efficient performance becomes a rule not of work alone but rather of life itself; of it work is an inseparable part.

PLANNING AS A FACTOR IN EFFICIENCY. It is difficult to give precedence to any one executive technique, because each factor in per-

sonal efficiency depends so much on every other factor. The faculty of planning, however, is perhaps the first which the executive must acquire. If he is really to attain his goals, he must plan each day, each week, each month, each year, and his whole life. Each interval of greater length, of course, should be planned in less detail than the preceding shorter interval. Each morning or evening), using the tickler file, which will be discussed shortly, or some other device, the executive should write down his plans for the day ahead. Every Monday morning he should write out in less detail the plan for the week to come. In the same way, at the first of each month he may plot out the major engagements of the month and the most important things to be done. At the beginning of the year he may plan his own main activities for the twelve months ahead. Then, too, in staff conference, the whole year's program for the organization may be developed, with the allocation of responsibility for each task which is to be performed. Only by such planning can the executive accomplish or even undertake to know those things which are desirable and worth endeavor.

(*a*) *Setting Goals as a Part of Planning.* Successful living is largely the selection of the more worth-while things and the subordination of those less important. The executive may find it desirable to make a more or less formal list—first, of those things in life which he considers essential; second, of those which are highly desirable; and, third, of those which are desirable if they can be done. He should try to do these things in this order of precedence.

Harrington Emerson has said that the individual should have major, minor, and lateral ideals. Major ideals are those which form the chief objects of the individual's life. Minor ideals contribute to the attainment of the major ideals. Lateral ideals give breadth to life—through the pursuit of hobbies and of various forms of recreation.

By a conscious selection of goals or "ideals" the executive can order his life with a conscious, unified purpose. Each activity of his will (we hope) be related to the plan of his life as a whole. Here we have that idea of an integrated life again, applied to the individual rather than to the organization. What the executive does will advance that plan, day by day, week by week, month by month, year by year, and decade by decade. When goals are thus established, he may more easily decide what course to take in life's greater or lesser emergencies or dilemmas. Pursue your goals!

(*b*) *Selecting That Which Contributes to Attainment.* A unified

plan of life and work means, obviously, that the executive will classify his activities. He will concentrate first of all on those things which must be done by him personally and will postpone action on the others or assign them to members of the staff. He must learn not to become a slave to his office or to his dictating machine. He must realize the importance of breaking away from unimportant details in order to do the more fundamental things which may be less immediately insistent. To carry out his plan, he must learn the value of concentration and of completing one job (if he is allowed to) before he begins another. Many executives undertake too many things at once and are consequently unable to complete any of them. A wise executive does not enter upon too many activities or assume too many responsibilities. Selection is vital to an adequate plan for the executive and for the individual.

(c) *Avoid a Foolish Consistency.* Obviously the planner must beware of becoming the prisoner of his plan. Rigid adherence to plans that are found to be ill conceived or have ceased to apply to changed conditions is almost as bad as failure to have any plan. Plans and ideals should be subject to continual "upward" revision in relation to changing conditions and information. Particularly is such progressive flexibility important in these post-war days of rapid change in community needs and attitudes and of shifting programs in social agencies. An "atomic bomb" of social crisis is likely to explode in your face almost any time. Stick to your present plans and ideals until you find better ones, and then do not hesitate to scrap the old for the new.

Remember, too, that plans often cannot be carried out completely, either because your own reach has exceeded your grasp or because the needs or insistencies of other persons or the hazards and unpredictabilities of human and natural events have interfered. Follow, then, that part of your plan which you can reasonably expect to carry through, and attain that part of your ideals which you can encompass. Rejoice at what you have attained. Do not repine at what has not been humanly possible. And keep on trying!

Remember the importance of maintaining a proper simplicity in planning, lest it become daydreaming and absorb so much of your time that there is none left for carrying out the plan itself.

Master your plans and ideals, lest they master you! They facilitate a full life, but they are not life itself.

SCHEDULES NECESSARY FOR ATTAINMENT. Constructive and flexible planning is not sufficient for satisfactory accomplishment. The

plan must usually be put upon a definite time basis or schedule. A schedule is merely a plan in which a definite time is assigned for its execution. In addition to planning his day's work, the executive will find it wise to schedule both the specific engagements and the amount of time to be given to each one. He may do this by means of some form of daily calendar pad or by merely noting on a ruled sheet of paper the hour planned for beginning and completing each task he has assigned himself for the day.

TICKLER SYSTEM AS AN AID TO PLANNING AND SCHEDULING. In effective planning and scheduling, the executive may find the tickler system of great assistance.

(*a*) *Tickler Book.* This is a loose-leaf book or pad made up of "ticklers," or sheets of uniform size, preferably 3 by 5 inches, which the executive carries with him at all times. Whenever he has an idea worth keeping, makes an engagement, or meets a person whose name he wants to remember, he makes a memorandum on a tickler. He uses a new slip for each item. These slips are filed as soon as convenient in their proper place in the executive's office for effective use later. For example, in the "Action at Once" folder in the deep desk drawer (soon to be described) are filed ticklers on which dictation or other immediate action is necessary.

(*b*) *Tickler File.* Slips for specific engagements and those which note specific times at which matters will come up for attention are put in the tickler file. This is merely a card-file box or drawer equipped with tabbed guides of the same size as the ticklers. The tabs are numbered from one to thirty-one for the days of the month, with twelve additional guides for the months of the year, and guides also for, say, five years ahead. Each tickler slip is filed back of its appropriate guide. Some executives use daily guides for two months so that their work can be planned in detail that far ahead.

Where time is not an important element, ticklers may be filed by subject. For example, the name of a person whom the executive has just met for the first time and wishes to see again may be filed behind an "Acquaintances" guide. An idea for a newspaper story will lurk behind "Publicity." A scheme for the financial campaign will be cached behind "Campaign"; then, when the campaign is being organized, all suggestions and ideas which relate to it will be found in that one place. Similarly, notations may be made regarding important books and articles to be read when (if ever) the executive has time.

An executive we know uses ticklers as an aid to remembering people. He makes notes of the names and characteristics of those he meets and later reviews these ticklers frequently. His success as an executive is doubtless due in part to his ability to remember people.

(*c*) *Tickler in the Office.* In addition to the tickler book already described, a supply of ticklers can be kept in the executive's desk for memoranda to be made there and immediately placed in his tickler file. Here, instead of writing the ticklers himself, he may dictate them on the dictating machine to be transcribed and filed by his secretary. The important thing is to make immediate notation of matters which may require immediate or future attention, and then to see that they are placed where they will come to mind when needed.

(*d*) *Tickler in Action.* The tickler file is actually a permanent memory which relieves the mind of worry about detail and frees it for creative thought. The file receives notes of everything that must be remembered and produces them on demand as the basis for planning and scheduling. The executive may plan the activities for the entire year by referring to the ticklers behind the various days and months. If he wishes to plan beyond a year, the tickler system can be extended by the addition of the necessary guide cards. For example, the date for renewing the lease for the agency's office might be filed an appropriate number of years ahead.

You may use your tickler file as the basis for planning the day's work. Take from it each morning the ticklers for the day, arrange the tasks in the proposed order of their performance, write the items on your calendar pad or daily schedule card, and allot a definite length of time, if possible, to each. The ticklers should then be returned to the file for reference on the following day. If any have not been attended to by then, include them in planning that day's work. After a while you will get so tired of writing them down that you will follow their insistent commands, just to get rid of them! Of course when the tickler slip has served its purpose you throw it away.

By the continual use of a tickler file, you may gain a reputation for infallibity which is as dangerous as it is valuable. Remember, though, to clear your pockets of ticklers when you get to your office and to consult the file each morning. On the first of the month, distribute to the proper dates the ticklers which have been collected behind the new month's guides. If you fail to do this you will be lost!

(*e*) *Planning and Scheduling Complicated Activities.* An essential part of effective scheduling (in which the tickler file is a great aid) is the planning, on a time basis, of every detail of a complicated activity. For example, each step in a financial campaign should be planned in advance; a plan of campaign, written out in full, is desirable. Ticklers for all these details can be filed by dates in a tickler file, or in a visible index in which the progress of campaign preparation and operation can be clearly seen. Hundreds or even thousands of activities may be necessary, depending on the size of the campaign. If a tickler system is used, all these activities can be scheduled and attended to. From the master schedule a separate schedule can be prepared for each division of the campaign, then duplicated, and finally distributed to all responsible persons.

(*f*) *Relate Tickler to the General File.* The tickler file may also be used in conjunction with the general file. For example, the executive may make a tickler of a letter to which he wishes to refer on a certain day, or insert under a given subject—for example, "Publicity"—a reference to a book or article which may be found in the library or in the pamphlet file of the organization.

(*g*) *Lists of Committee Members in Tickler File.* In addition to the ticklers already described, the executive may keep on cards in a tickler file the names of members of important committees and boards to which he needs to refer. These lists thus filed are always readily available, easily corrected, and much neater than a frequently changed manuscript list. The cards may also be used easily if it is necessary to address the lists separately (although most lists should be on addressing machine plates or stencils).

(*h*) *Central Tickler File.* A variation of the tickler file, as used by some organizations, is a central tickler file under the supervision of the file clerk. Into this file are put all memoranda, carbon copies of letters, and other items which require attention on a certain day. Then they are brought to the attention of the proper executive. Large governmental agencies of necessity make extensive and thoroughgoing use of the central dated tickler file. In most organizations, however, individual tickler files, kept by the executive and sub-executives or their secretaries, are adequate.

OTHER METHODS OF SCHEDULING WORK. The tickler file is not the only satisfactory way of scheduling work. Some executives use a desk calendar for that purpose. This device, however, is not always effective, for, if the work is not completed on the day scheduled for it, it may possibly be forgotten. The tickler always remains in the tickler file as a reminder until the work is completed.

Another excellent device is the "Phillips Brooks" calendar, so named because it was presumably once used by that eminent divine. This is a set of twelve cards, about 9 x 12 inches in size, one for each month of the year. Each card is divided into squares for the days, with sufficient space to write in the events of a not-too-complex day. The advantage of this calendar is that the individual can see his whole month's engagements at a glance.

The difficulty with both types of calendar is that, although they have room for scheduled engagements, they are not large enough to list all the things a busy executive has to do in a day. We personally have found much more helpful a detailed schedule, arranged by order of priorities, prepared each morning from the tickler file.

SCHEDULES ARE MADE TO BE BROKEN. The executive should not have too great a respect for his schedule. He must realize that at times it will have to be changed on short notice. Many things may occur in the course of the day which will necessitate postponing some scheduled items. This is one of the reasons why it is important for the executive to discriminate between major and minor activities. Some of the less important matters may be deferred successfully with the help of the tickler system.

CHECKING UP ON PLAN AND SCHEDULE. Part of the executive's program of accomplishment should be the assignment of a definite time each day, preferably at its close, for checking his schedule to see that nothing essential has been omitted and for looking over the next day's schedule. Daily check-ups, however, are no more important that those at longer intervals. The executive must make time in his schedule to compare the progress made each week against his plan for that week, and for each month against his month's plans. He should spend some time annually, perhaps hours or days, alone or in staff conference, planning for the year ahead. At the end of each of these periods the executive may well ask himself, "What mistakes have I made? How may I avoid them in the future? How can I do better? How can I handle problems which have arisen and are not solved?"

After the event comes the review. Results, so far as they can be determined, together with the methods by which they were attained, should be carefully analyzed. How far did the results agree with those you aimed at? Did you reach your goal? Were the methods you employed those you originally planned? Did you fail to execute your plan, or did you improve on it in the heat of action? In what respect did your methods succeed? What mistakes were made and how did they affect the result?

LIVING THE FULL LIFE. From the broader point of view, the executive should plan not only for his job but for the whole length and breadth of his life. Since he must be healthy, he must plan exercise at frequent intervals, preferably daily exercise of a kind adapted to his age, condition, and temperament. Nor must he let work and play intrude upon the full amount of sleep he needs, for rest is an essential of the vigorous life. To get his mind off his work and to give his brain, as it were, fallow ground, he must have some time for recreation and for the pursuit of a hobby. Certainly life does proceed by rhythms, and periods of work are justly followed by periods of rest and play. Furthermore, the executive must provide room in his life for full and fair attention to the demands of his family, his friends, his church, and his community relationships. The good executive usually is not the one who gives all his time to his job but the one who lives broadly as well as deeply, who gives generously of himself in many relationships other than those of his work. Work, after all, is only a means to the end of a full and integrated life.

OFFICE HOURS OF THE EXECUTIVE. The discussion of planning and scheduling for work and play brings up a question which many executives ask—whether they should conform to the office hours of the organization. They feel that, if their work continues more or less without end by day and by night, they can come to the office when they please and go when they please. That, of course, is technically true. On the other hand, the executive must remember that he is an example for his staff. His employees do not realize the time he spends out of office hours in attending meetings or in studying, thinking, and working for the organization. Overtime work is the penalty of executive responsibility. He who wishes to keep up the morale of his staff will find it desirable to be as prompt in getting to the office in the morning as he expects his staff to be. He will be just as meticulous, also, in remaining until the closing hour. If he does not at any time observe these hours, he may explain to his staff, by specific mention in staff meeting, his reasons for not being present. A staff will not work hard if it thinks the boss is loafing.

THE EXECUTIVE'S VACATION. The same punctilious attitude seems valid with respect to vacations. If the executive takes a longer vacation than his staff members, it should not be because he is the boss and can take what he wants. A longer vacation is justified only if the executive, as a result of the great demands of his job, has put in a

vast amount of additional time and energy (in excess of anyone else) for which he needs recuperation and compensation, or if he has great tasks ahead for which he should be physically, mentally, and spiritually prepared. Generally speaking, the executive's vacation should be on the same basis as that of the other professional members of the staff. In actual practice, during the past anxious, busy years of depression, war, and reconversion, we have not seen many executives who have felt they could take the full time to which they were entitled. That, again, is one of the penalties of responsibility.

ORGANIZING THE EXECUTIVE'S TIME. Practical social work executives have offered noteworthy suggestions on this matter of scheduling and planning, as follows:—

Do not let accumulate letters that are easily answered and certain matters which do not require looking up or careful consideration.

Allot a little of each day to keeping routine matters going.

Keep one day a week completely free from appointments, and if necessary stay away from the office for certain pieces of work.

Do first or promptly those things for which other staff members, committees, or subsidiary boards are waiting.

Give the other fellow a thought in scheduling individual or group conferences.

Judge what are the main conditions of your survival or failure on your job. How much time you have left over for the more interesting things depends upon how much time your community demands in reference to the fundamental services.

EXECUTIVE CARRIES PLAN WITH HIM. An executive whom we once knew scheduled his daily activities and also applied the principles of planning and scheduling to his long-time procedure. He had his plan typed in a small notebook which he carried with him at all times. Whenever he found himself alone with nothing else to do, he was likely to take out his notebook and check up as to whether he was carrying out his plan, how he might more effectively live up to it, and how it might be improved. His plan, more or less disguised, was as follows:

PLAN OF LIFE AND WORK

A. Purpose. To become the most effective worker possible in my field, and to make the organization which employs me the most efficient instrument possible for the service for which it is intended.

B. How?

I. Secure competent counsel.

a. Read all books and magazines on my own and affiliated subjects plus the life of my community.

b. Attend all possible conferences on these subjects.

c. Read and get the advice, wherever possible, of people who are experts in these subjects.

d. Belong to organizations in these fields.

II. Promote experimental projects in order to develop continually better methods in my line of endeavor.

III. Apply this information continually to improvement of the work of my organization.

IV. Keep an adequate written record of all the ideas thus secured, suitably preserved and indexed for ready reference.

V. Plan a well-rounded life with allowance for professional, community, and family interests.

VI. Check up weekly, monthly, and yearly on following of plan, redirecting effort on the basis of experience.

VII. Make experience, when significant, available for others by:

a. Speaking whenever possible before suitable groups.

1. Study effective speaking.
2. Prepare each speech carefully as to material, arrangement, and style.
3. Practice speech when possible in advance.
4. Hear and analyze good speaking.

b. Writing whenever possible for all appropriate publications, local and national.

1. Be sure:
   (a) Information is accurate.
   (b) Point of view is original and fresh.
   (c) Material is well organized.
   (d) Style is of highest possible quality.
2. Work out originally on dictating machine for practice in speaking.
3. Prepare painstakingly and polish carefully.
4. Read and analyze good writing.
5. Teach my subject when the opportunity offers, preparing material carefully.

VIII. Practice and improve my chosen hobby.

IX. Keep in good physical trim.

a. Daily exercise.

b. Proper food.

c. Adequate sleep

X. Keep in good mental trim.

a. Adequate recreation.

b. Refuse to worry.

c. Develop self-control and self-analysis.

d. Develop broad culture.

XI. Have proper contact with people who count.
  a. In my field of work.
  b. In my community, through residence in suitable neighborhood and effective social contacts.
  c. In the nation, by writing to leaders when occasions offer, calling on them when in their neighborhood, and entertaining them when they come to my city.

XII. Get members of my staff to follow these principles so far as they wish to.

XIII. Have sympathy and understanding for viewpoint and emotional reactions of others, and show it; do not be too reserved.

XIV. Be easy and informal except when the occasion demands formality.

In these various ways, then, the executive may practice the principles of planning and scheduling—for the day, the week, the month, and the year, and even for a lifetime. Summed up, these principles mean merely the possession of an integrated philosophy of life and a sense of the significance of life and of the interrelatedness of all its phases. The capable executive or individual will relate all that he does to his plan and philosophy. He will always try to choose the better course of action instead of the less satisfactory course. He will strive to make each interval of time see definite progress toward those goals which have been set as worthy of attainment. These goals may never be reached, because life always affords more activity than one individual can cover. Yet they are the more worth while because they keep their pursuer continually active in endeavor for attainment.

QUESTIONS

1. How would you define the term efficiency?
2. Describe some efficient individuals you have known.
3. What were the factors in their efficiency?
4. To what extent do you plan for the day, week, month, year, or longer periods?
5. How might you improve your planning?
6. What major, minor, and lateral ideals have you set for your work and your life?
7. How might they be improved?
8. How do you select the things you are to do?
9. Give some examples of schedules.

10. What do you do about scheduling your own activities?

11. How might you apply the tickler system to yourself?

12. How do you check up on the performance of your plans and schedules?

13. What time do you take for contemplation?

14. To what extent do you live a well-rounded life?

15. How could you improve your practice?

16. How do executives whom you know handle their own office hours and vacations?

17. Write out a well co-ordinated plan of action for your own life.

Chapter X

More Details on Self-Management

THE EXECUTIVE AS STUDENT. Well planned though his life may be, the executive must remember, as has already been suggested, that, although one plan may endure for a lifetime, it should be discarded wholly or in part if a better one can be found. By this counsel we should not be understood to advocate inconsistency. Rather, our aim is to suggest willingness to improve steadily, to set new goals, and to use new methods where old ones are found unsatisfactory in the light of new experience and new knowledge. The executive must never accept any continuing program or procedure as entirely settled. He must always be striving for better ways of performance for himself and for his agency. In addition to his functions as planner and as administrator, he must be a student. In other words, he must know the theoretical and factual aspects of his job and utilize every possible means for increasing his knowledge.

(*a*) *First-hand Information Essential.* Much of the executive's knowledge must come at first hand. By personal inspection and contacts he may keep continually in touch with the work of his organization and with conditions in his community. A hospital superintendent should make complete and repeated rounds of his institution. The secretary of a family society must visit his district offices or outposts frequently. The executive of a community chest or council should visit his member organizations often and talk to their executives and officers. Thus he may know what they are doing and why they are doing it and may see the relationship of their specialized activities to the total program of community service.

(*b*) *Reading.* Even such direct means of acquiring information are not sufficient. The executive must be a student of all the phases of his particular work and of all the elements of his general field of service from the standpoints of professional service and administration. He must learn to extract the meat from pamphlets, period-

icals, proceedings, and books on these and related subjects. He must not confine his reading to his own areas of professional responsibility. In addition, he should read significant material on national and world affairs and on his cultural interests.

Time for such reading may be taken in the evening or during his other spare time (if he has any). It seems valid, however, for the executive to take office time (if he can find it)—say one afternoon a week—to read current professional magazines and periodicals, marking them for his own use and for that of his staff and board, tearing out pages he wishes to keep, and indicating selections from books, to be copied by his secretary. If the working day does not afford time for such reading, he may create an opportunity for it by staying at the office half an hour or an hour after quitting time in the afternoons when other engagements do not prevent, or by using Saturday mornings for this purpose if the general office operates, as many do, on a five-day week. That may be hard on one's leisure, yet one of the uses of leisure should be self-improvement.

No matter how the time for reading is wrenched from the executive's full life, at the first opportunity he should dictate memoranda of this reading and send them to the persons concerned with such material.

Every executive should have in his office the necessary reference works in his field of activity. These range from the dictionary and *Who's Who in America* (valuable when information regarding local dignitaries or out-of-town speakers is necessary for publicity or other reasons) to standard volumes on office management and the techniques of social work. We think the present book would come in handy in most social agency offices. For that matter, we have been pleased to see its 1931 version, *Social Work Administration,* on the shelves of numerous agencies. Valuable material for an executive's library will be found in the well-tested bibliography at the end of this book. Members of the professional and executive staff also should be encouraged to read on much the same basis as the executive. Pertinent books, magazines, and reports should be routed to staff members, and they should be asked for suggestions as to how this material may be applied to the work of the agency. Sometimes they may be requested to review important books or articles at staff meetings. A reading shelf should be maintained by a competent staff member for the use of the staff and of volunteers.

(*c*) *Learning by Observation and Conversation.* The executive must also seek counsel from many other sources. He can learn much

by observing organizations that are doing the same kind of work in his own or other cities. In addition, he can learn by analogy from organizations outside his field. He may from time to time attend institutes or refresher courses to make sure that his ideas are up to date and in order to attain new professional horizons. He should attend important conferences on social work. The conference should not be used merely as an orgy of attendance at meetings and of exchanging ideas in hotel lobbies. More important, it should be considered an opportunity for face-to-face discussion with specialists in the various phases of social work. The executive may either rely on catching these specialists at the conference or write to them in advance and make specific engagements with them. He will find it beneficial, when he visits other cities, to call on the leaders in social work and get their advice on his problems. This the more or less flattered leader will be glad to give. In his own town, the resourceful executive will have a few seasoned advisers, both lay and professional, to whom he can go confidentially with the problems which disturb him.

RECORDS FOR THE EXECUTIVE. Throughout all this studying, consulting, and conferring and all the concomitant planning and scheduling, the executive may wish to keep a record of individual and organizational performance in convenient form for his personal use.

(*a*) *Daily Log.* He may, for example, find it helpful to write—for some time, perhaps for a few weeks or months—a daily log. In this he writes down everything he does and the length of time it takes. This log may be combined with his daily schedule form—the schedule on one side and the log on the other. By analyzing the log he can find out how much time he devotes to various activities. Then he can determine whether he is giving too much or too little to any project, or whether some of the relatively unimportant chores which are taking a great deal of time may not be delegated to some other member of the staff.

Such an analysis of time will be helpful to almost every executive or social worker. The log helps to show where a waste of time and effort can be eliminated. It also serves as a basis for preparing plans and schedules for the future, since the estimated time for carrying on activities may be determined from its record of their past performance. A further advantage of the daily log is that the user may prepare from it a daily report or diary of activities. From it in turn may be compiled his weekly and monthly reports. Log-keeping

is almost as useful for the social executive as it is for the captain of a ship.

(b) Avoid Unnecessary Records. In addition to the log, which may be kept with greater or less devotion, the executive may need other records—but not too many, or too elaborate ones!

The complex records of finance, statistics, and personnel which some executives carry in inside and outside coat pockets (and feminine handbags) remind one of the old-fashioned housewife who put everything in the attic because she thought she might want it some day.

Even the records which the executive keeps in his desk could probably be reduced to much smaller proportions than the bulk which is frequently in alleged use. Financial and statistical reports ordinarily need not be kept at hand beyond the time when the next reports are received. Out-of-date reports and elaborate lists are usually better in the central file, available for everyone, than in the executive's desk. Then, when infrequently the executive is asked for data which may not be conveniently at hand, he can say that he will secure it—and do so, promptly.

(c) Idea Book. One record, however, which is not usually kept in the desk, may well be maintained there. This is the idea book, suggested by the late W. H. Leffingwell, the great pioneer in office efficiency. He used ticklers to note ideas. When he got to his office each day he dictated each idea to his secretary. She typed it on a separate sheet of paper and inserted it in a loose-leaf binder. These memoranda were classified according to types of ideas. When he had time, "Leff" went through his idea book and wrote down additional thoughts that occurred to him. Then, when the time came to put an idea into practice he found himself fully armed through reference to his idea book. He once told us that this idea book had been worth tens of thousands of dollars to him. A similar idea book might be worth tens of thousands of dollars to the social agency which employs an executive who will use it.

(d) Always Hold Something in Reserve. The use of the idea book suggests an important bit of executive technique described to us a good many years ago by the late James F. Jackson, then superintendent of the then Associated Charities of Cleveland, Ohio. He said, "The smart executive always has a bag of tricks available from which he can extract new tricks when the old ones are worn out." This was "the General's" homely way of saying that an executive should always have in mind the element of fatigue in the interest

of board, committee, and staff members. He should not weary them by insisting always upon the same elements of program. Preferably he should give some variation to his proposals. He would plan to present old material in new guise, and new ideas and new activities when the old ones seemed for the time being to have run their course. The executive who uses an idea book need never be without ideas, especially if he is alert and studious and continually collects material from every available source.

If he does not use such a book, his ticklers of ideas should at least be filed away under appropriate subject guides. This book you are reading, for example, was originally outlined completely in a tickler file. It took two foot-long boxes to hold the ticklers and infinite precaution by a harassed family to protect them.

The use of the idea book and the tickler file will help the executive to keep one or two moves ahead of the group and to exercise real leadership at all times. Records thus used are creative.

HANDLING DICTATION. In order to make creative activity possible, a number of tricks of executive technique have been worked out. Some of these refer to the usually heavy task of dictating letters.

(*a*) *Dictate as You Read.* Instead of reading his morning's mail through and then reading it over again and dictating, as many do, the fast-working executive will dictate his reply to each letter that can be handled immediately without further thought or research just as he finishes reading it.

Some letters, of course, cannot be handled in this dashing manner. If the letter requires a "cooling-off" period because it irritates the dictator, or if the executive needs to let his subconscious mind operate a bit before he can formulate the right reply, he may pencil notes as he reads, for future guidance. Then he can put the problem letter at the bottom of the day's mail. By the time he comes to the letter again, he will probably be ready to answer it fully and adequately, with the help of the penciled thought pegs. The subconscious mind has an agreeable way of working on such letters and providing answers by the time second attention is given to them. Then, too, some letters require the assembling of data or special information not immediately available, and answers to such letters must be deferred.

In comment on the above, Howard S. Braucher, President of the National Recreation Association, writes as follows:—

At one time I was very much impressed with the idea of dictating as one reads communications and reports for the first time, but as I have watched

a good many of our own workers I have seen a great deal of the time of able secretaries wasted because problems had not been thought through and because material from the files necessary to the dictation had not been brought out.

(*b*) *Letters Written in Wrath.* It goes without saying that except under the most extraordinary conditions the executive should never send a letter written when he was angry. He may dictate an irate reply to relieve his feelings, but it is wise for him to hold such a letter until the next day, read it again, and destroy it. Then he will write another letter which will adjust the difficulty and build good will instead of antagonism for the organization and the writer.

(*c*) *Additional Material via Secretary.* If the letter requires material which the executive has not immediately available, he may dictate a memorandum which requests the needed information from his secretary. It is to be presumed that the executive uses a dictating machine; direct dictation to a stenographer is now out of date for anyone with much dictation to do. (We wrote this sentence first in 1930 and regret to note that the admonition is still appropriate.) The secretary can then attach the material to the letter which is to be answered.

(*d*) *Clean It Up from Day to Day.* We once knew a prominent executive, overworked and untrained in executive performance, who was chronically weeks behind in his dictation. His special technique in dictating was to turn the whole pile of unanswered letters upside down and then dictate from what had been the bottom of the pile. In that way he at least answered the letters which were oldest and presumably most needed attention. Still it should have been just as easy for him to clean up his dictation day by day. He now has passed to his Great Reward. We hope it is not diminished by his earthly malady of epistolary congestion.

(*e*) *Keep Time Clear for Dictation.* The importance of keeping up with dictation means that it is expedient for the executive who has a heavy load of dictation to have definite hours for conference with his staff members. If any must see him daily, they should leave him free to attend to the mail and other matters during the first hour or so in the morning, when callers are less likely to appear than later. It may be desirable for the agency to secure a post-office box and have mail addressed to it. Then a staff member can stop at the post office on the way to work, get the mail, and have it ready for his arrival. If possible, conferences should be held in the afternoon. By planning his day in this way and handling his dictation as

the mail comes to him, the executive can turn out an enormous amount of correspondence, yet free himself for constructive activities and for getting out of the office to call on people he should see.

A well-conceived plan of handling dictation such as has been described will almost work itself. Even though the executive is tired and out of sorts, work that is handled in this orderly manner will demand and get attention. Moreover, prompt handling of correspondence is a courtesy owed to one's correspondents. Further, it is an item in good public relations, for which the executive has a major responsibility.

FORM LETTERS. Some of the members of the executive seminar which discussed the first draft of this revision said that they thought form letters or form paragraphs might be used by the dictation-harassed executive. We, too, were once fascinated by that business-tested idea, but it did not prove very helpful in social work. We have occasionally used stock paragraphs that embodied our best answer to a stock complaint or question. Still, we always embedded the paragraph in a personalized letter. Each letter should be written as specifically as possible for the recipient. It should represent the social work technique of individualization or case work.

The correspondent should be warned by the alleged experience of the gentleman who, during the transportation turmoil of the Second World War, found a bedbug in his Pullman berth. (We must say we never did.) He wrote a letter of complaint to the Pullman Company and receive promptly a beautiful letter of apology. It said that such a tragedy had never occurred before and would, he might be sure, never happen again. Measures had been taken. Unfortunately (runs the story) enclosed with the assuring apology, was the complainant's original letter. Across the bottom was penciled, "Write this —— the bedbug letter." Beware of form letters!

WRITTEN ORDERS AND AGREEMENTS. In accordance with the attention already given to dictation and to the keeping of records, one of the most important rules of executive performance is that all orders, all agreements, all instructions, and all matters to be remembered and preserved should as far as possible be put in writing.

(*a*) *Diary*. Some executives dictate, from their daily logs or some other brief form of notes on the day's events, a diary of the significant events of the day. From this diary the executive compiles his reports. From it, also, he can when necessary verify his recollection of past events. He may keep this diary in a loose-leaf book in his desk until he has compiled his weekly or monthly report and then

send the diary to the central file. (Many executives write narrative reports of activities at the end of each month.) The diary may be of great advantage, too, in making a case study of the development of a social agency or in writing its history.

Carbon copies of the diary can be used in various ways. One copy can be clipped apart according to subjects. The various items then are filed under the respective topics. A community chest director might file pertinent sections of his diary under the names of the member organizations with which face-to-face or telephone contracts are recorded in the diary. With this material he could check up on any questions which might arise later as to what actually occurred in those contacts. Moreover, if the president of the organization is interested in knowing what is happening, the executive can keep him informed by mailing him a copy of the diary each day. This procedure saves much conference and gives the president information on everything that happens.

(b) Memoranda of All Agreements. After keeping a diary of this sort for some years, an executive whom we knew expressed doubt as to whether the practice was worth all the trouble and time involved both for him and for his secretary. In place of the diary, he decided to dictate memoranda about important contacts, mail the original to the person concerned for verification, and file a copy of the memorandum under the proper subject. Carrying out this new procedure made the detailed diary unnecessary for him. Anyone who succeeded him in the organization could find in the file a record of all important contacts. Thus, if a board member telephoned about some important matter, the executive not only told him what action was possible but also confirmed this statement in writing and put a copy of the memorandum into the file folder on the subject. The board member thus knew to what the executive had agreed. If there was a misunderstanding, it was at once apparent and could be cleared up. The corrected understanding would be confirmed in writing.

The value of written confirmations of personal and telephone agreements has often been observed. On the other hand, the evil effects which come from half-understood agreements and indefinite promises (and sometimes from agreements apparently willfully misunderstood) have been seen innumerable times. No reasonable doubt exists that this practice of written memoranda is a fundamental part of effective executive control.

(c) Written Instructions. The injunction "put it in writing" ap-

plies to relations with staff members as well as to those with people outside the organization. Copies of internal agreements, sent to the personnel concerned, can be the basis for effective co-operation, with great economy of time and effort. Instead of calling a staff member to the office when he is busy talking to someone else, or telephoning him and finding his line busy, the executive may dictate a memorandum which his secretary promptly transmits. The executive holds a carbon copy of it in his desk in the folder which refers to that person. The assistant knows that the executive has a copy of the memorandum and that he will check up on performance. Since the instructions are written, no question can arise as to what they were.

Memoranda of this kind are valuable. They confirm and make definite the means of carrying on internal operation. For instance, they make specific and beyond controversy agreements regarding rates of pay, promises of promotion, vacations, and the like.

Internal agreements may be typed on plain sheets of $8\frac{1}{2}$ by 11 inch paper, with carbon copies on the same kind of paper; or they may be typed on special forms made up in pads, with the original of one color and the carbon copy of another. (Although the latter device is elegant in appearance, it seems to have no advantage over plain paper.) Paper from an inexpensive scratch pad may be used, with a piece of carbon paper inserted between two sheets. Three by five inches is a good size for such a pad, because instructions typed in duplicate on this paper may readily be put into both the recipient's and the executive's tickler files.

Internal memoranda may also be used for requesting information, and the assistant can handle his reply in the same manner. If the person who is to do a certain task is sick or away from the office, the one who takes up his work can carry on where he left off by referring to the memoranda.

Memoranda on matters to be discussed in individual and group conferences will stimulate advance thought and collection, as well as make the conferences briefer and more resultful than if the conferees are "caught cold."

The extra time and labor necessary for the dictation and transcription of internal memoranda are far less important than the value of definite and specific agreements, instructions, and understandings. Written memoranda are permanent and susceptible of correction and will serve as a basis for supervision and as a fundamental factor in the delegation of responsibility. They should not, however, take the place of the personal conference which may be

necessary for understanding and constructive discussion. It is obvious that the practice of using written memoranda should not be carried to a silly extreme. Used in judicious moderation, the device can be highly useful.

(*d*) *Records of Visits and Conferences.* Written memoranda may be further used by the executive for recording special contacts made outside or inside his office. For example, the superintendent of a hospital may, on making the rounds of his institution, note certain matters which should come to the attention of his department heads. Rather than trust to his memory, he may dictate his suggestions and have them delivered to his subordinates for discussion at mutual convenience. In the same way, the executive can record his impressions of important callers or of conversations which may affect the policy of the organization, for his guidance in future relationships with them or with the organizations they represent. Then, too, the executive may get information regarding the interests and hobbies of his board members or of large contributors. These ideas should be dictated and recorded either in the files or on the master cards of those concerned. This procedure corresponds to the practice of case-working social agencies which make case records of their contacts with their clients.

All these uses of memoranda for the executive merely emphasize the well-known historical fact that civilization made its greatest advances after the art of writing was developed for the communication and preservation of ideas. Those social agencies which have a background of written agreements, written understandings, and written instructions tend to make the most effective progress.

SELF-DISCIPLINE. Some books on personal efficiency emphasize the importance of self-discipline. A mild amount of it seems desirable for almost any social administrator who wishes to accomplish his purposes as completely as possible. For instance, he may say that he will not leave the office on Saturday afternoon (or take Saturday morning off if his agency is on a five-day week) unless he has completed the dictation work which has accumulated during the week. If he will treat himself thus sternly, he will get his work done more promptly than would otherwise be the case. Further, he will thus (we hope) enjoy his recreation over the week end more than he would if a great amount of unfinished work were hanging over him. He can relax instead of remaining in a state of tension, conscious or subconscious. More than this, with a clean start on the following week, he probably will finish that week's work on schedule instead

of being delayed by unfinished business. On the other hand, some major tasks cannot be completed in a day or a week but must be held over, for completion as nearly as possible on schedule.

There is a great deal of truth in what Howard S. Braucher, quoted earlier, has to say on discipline:

> Of course recently we have gone through the depression period and also the war period when workers have been scarce and the loads greater than are ordinarily borne. It is perhaps because of the recent experience that I am not inclined to think it is a good idea for an executive to discipline himself by not beginning his week end until his desk has been cleared.
>
> I myself have strongly urged a five-day week in our own organization, from the point of view of efficiency. I was even rash enough to state that I believed more work could be done in five days than in five and one-half days. The experiment was authorized in our organization on this basis. I cannot say that I feel my prediction as to volume of work has been realized, but I still believe profoundly in the value of the five-day week. I very much hope that in our own organization it will be kept. We do have what we call a "skeleton force" to handle correspondence, consultation, and emergencies on Saturday mornings. That means that each worker has to be in on Saturday on the average of about once in six weeks.

This whole discussion of discipline is based on the presumption that the executive takes his work seriously and has certain goals which he thinks are even more important in their attainment than are certain pleasures. Such a philosophy may not, of course, coincide with that of many people who hold that work exists for the sake of giving a financial basis for pleasure and that labor should be confined within certain definite hours (and those as few as possible).

Yet, the creed of discipline is sound practice for those who feel that the labor they perform in social work is worth while, that their schedules should give them time for play as well as for work, but that sometimes accomplishment has to be achieved at the cost of what otherwise would be leisure. The following principle is valid: Defer *recreation* (although not at too great a cost with respect to the pleasure of the family and others dependent upon you and your joy in them) until you have finished as far as practicable and reasonable the *creation* you have set yourself. To do so will help in your achievement of the goals which you have set.

QUESTIONS

1. What does some social work executive whom you have observed do to secure first-hand information about the progress of the work for which he is responsible?

2. What professional reading does he do?

3. What does he do about passing on to his associates information secured in this way?

4. What use does he make of conferences, institutes, and visits to other social agencies?

5. What records does he keep for his personal use?

6. Does he keep an idea book or file, or anything that corresponds to them?

7. How does he handle his dictation?

8. How is he able to arrange time for his dictation?

9. What is his policy on written orders and agreements?

10. Does he keep a diary or log? If so, what is its nature and what use is made of it?

11. To what extent does he record significant conferences and visits?

12. How do you think his procedure in these various respects might be improved?

13. What do you do about self-discipline?

14. How do you think you might improve?

Chapter XI

The Executive's Office

STANDARD CONDITIONS DESIRABLE. The goals of work and life may be more readily attained if, as far as possible, the major conditions of work and life can be standardized. Toward such standardization, the executive of the social agency can begin moving by attack on the conditions of work in his own office.

(*a*) *Temperature.* For example, he can regulate the temperature of his office, at least in winter, to the theoretical healthful maximum of 68 or 70 degrees. Conversely, if his office happily is air conditioned (a luxury to which relatively few social work offices have yet attained), he can in hot weather adjust the office temperature to whatever degree (or number of degrees Fahrenheit) will make the ultimate plunge into the outer air not too unendurable.

(*b*) *Light.* In fulfillment of this belief in the desirability of standardized conditions, the executive will arrange his desk so that the light—natural or artificial—comes over one of his shoulders—his left, if possible. Certainly he can make sure that no glaring light shines directly on or reflects into his eyes by day or night.

(*c*) *Ventilation.* He can, moreover, prevent papers from blowing on his desk, and yet provide suitable ventilation, by installing inexpensive window ventilators. Benefits of this nature should not, of course, be limited to the executive's office, but should be provided for all staff members.

THE DESK AS WORK BENCH. The efficient executive will also do his utmost to make his desk an efficient work bench.

(*a*) *Cleared for Action.* The desk, to use a nautical simile, should be like a battleship cleared for action. Nothing should be on or inside the desk except what may be necessary for the day's work. (We shall have more to say on this point later.)

(*b*) *Flat Tops.* It is almost unnecessary to mention the advantages of flat-topped desks, for the roll-top is now practically extinct in good office practice.

(*c*) *Linoleum Tops when Possible.* The surface of the flat-topped desk is important. Dark green linoleum makes a good top. It provides a fine writing surface with no varnish to scratch and does not cause a glare from reflected light.

A plate-glass top should be avoided. It is more expensive than any social agency ought to afford. Its cost is greater than that of revarnishing the desk. It is easily breakable. It does not present a good writing surface. Papers slide all over the glass when the executive tries to write with one hand and hold the telephone receiver with the other. Planting a telephonic elbow on the elusive paper helps somewhat, but this makeshift is quite unreliable. Besides, the hard glass hurts the elbow. The plate-glass top, with its glare of reflected light, is also hard on the eyes. The records which may be kept under it are seldom important. Better a wooden top, scratched and dulled in honorable service, than the extravagant and dazzling pretensions of a plate-glass top.

(*d*) *Steel vs. Wood.* Much argument prevails over the relative merits of wooden and steel desks. During the Second World War one took what he could get. We got one of wood (painted dark green) with a dark green linoleum top edged with gray plastic. It will do, but we would prefer steel. Wood gouges easily when the dictating machine bumps into it. Also, the circular that came with the desk warned against resting the live end of a lighted cigar or cigarette against the plastic edge—evidently it might blow up in your face! Our pet peeve, however, is the steel desk painted to imitate wood. Be yourself, desk!

(*e*) *No Gadgets or Litter.* Some executives seem to feel that they must have on their desks great stacks of unfinished work, besides numerous file baskets or other devices for sorting documents and letters (perhaps to give the impression that they are busier than they are), plus a fountain-pen stand, a blotter pad, several family photographs on easels, an elaborate clock, a desk calendar, a golf-ball paper weight, and other distracting gadgets. All these devices disturb concentration—and a busy executive has to concentrate. Keep the top of your desk clear of all but the immediate work you are doing, so that you can clean up that job!

(*f*) *Desk Auxiliary.* The executive may find it possible to keep his desk clear only by the use of various supplementary devices. The practice of one executive will illustrate this procedure:

Instead of there being a clock on his desk, an electric clock hangs from the wall in front of him, at eye height (where callers can see it,

too). Under the clock hangs a calendar (without advertising) which reveals the current month and the two which precede and follow it.

The desk is set squarely against the wall. (This man declares that he abhors the practice of arranging desks cater-cornered, or sticking out lengthwise from the wall, or in the middle of the room in such a way as to form a sort of fortification behind which the executives lurk or try to look impressive and across which they restrainedly interview callers.)

A table stands at the left of the desk, at right angles to it and touching it. The table backs against the window from which the light comes over the executive's left shoulder. The inner edges of the desk and table form an inverted "L." On the table (and how generously it takes care of all the gadgets and knickknacks!) are the necessary baskets for outgoing mail and material for the files; the dictating machine and rack of cylinders; a telephone; the buzzer button for the executive's secretary; a thermos jug (for water) and a tumbler on a tray; an electric fan in the summer; and a smoking set (it included a nest of ash trays until the charwoman dumped them into the waste basket along with ashes and butts). In the drawer of the table, out of the way, is the telephone book.

This executive feels that his arrangement of table and desk enables him, with less confusion and effort, to turn out through concentrated endeavor more work of a higher quality than would otherwise be possible.

The seminar referred to earlier suggests at this juncture that a shelf might take the place of the table. It would, if big enough. We tried it once. The dictating machine (on a stand) and a typewriter (ditto) slipped underneath the shelf. The only trouble was, the shelf had no drawer and it was put up to stay. We like to move our desk and table around a bit once in a while to see if we can't find a better arrangement—maybe just the change makes it seem better!

(*g*) *Contents of the Desk.* Within the executive's desk the principle of having closest at hand those things which are most used is followed. Even in the remote recesses should be found only what is likely to be used frequently.

Here is a sample arrangement which we once observed: Across the front of the upper left-hand drawer stood a tickler file. It contained, behind guides for the days and months, ticklers of all scheduled events and activities. Here, too, were guided ticklers of ideas and notes, arranged by subjects, and indexed card lists of the various committees and the board of the agency. In the next space, to-

ward the rear of the drawer, the executive's secretary placed all incoming mail and other documents which required attention.

Into the second drawer (there were only two shallow drawers on the left side) the hopeful user dropped all the papers, pamphlets, and magazines which he intended to take home (hoping sometime to do some professional reading in his "study"). This drawer was supposed to be emptied every night when he left.

Across the front of the wide central drawer above the knee space ran a partitioned steel tray. It contained shears, pencils, an eraser, paper clips, and rubber bands. Behind this tray, side by side, were two notebooks for records so frequently used or so confidential that it seemed advisable not to keep them in the general files.

In the deep drawer on the right was the "Action at Once" folder which we have mentioned in connection with the tickler system. Into that folder went all the things to which the executive was to give immediate attention—mostly by use of the dictating machine. In this drawer, too, were folders for sub-executives. Into these folders the "boss" put memoranda he wished to discuss with his assistants, as well as carbon copies of their instructions and copies of their plans for each week and month to be taken up with them in weekly conferences. Here also were several folders for the "cabinet," which met weekly, and for the board, committees, and projects for which the executive was currently responsible. Into these folders he dropped letters, reports, and pertinent memoranda. We regretted to note that he did not clear these folders out as often as he should. He collected ideas as a squirrel does nuts, and he hated to give them up. Still, no one else wanted these memoranda, or would have known what to do with them. Therefore this executive followed reasonably well the principle that no material which someone else might want should be kept in his desk. Material for general use belongs in the central file where it can be available for all!

This executive's intention, further, was to have nothing in his desk which would not be used within the month. He worked best with his desk stripped for action. He knew where everything was. He was sure that everything would come up for attention at the proper time and that nothing would be neglected (unless he failed to use his "system"). He felt that he was freed for constructive and decisive thought by having an "athletic" desk. It helped him to do better his strenuous job of planning, supervising, and executing.

SEATING ARRANGEMENTS FOR CALLERS. In addition to table and desk, there should be a few chairs for callers. Three may be enough, be-

cause seldom are more than three people in the office at the same time, except for a meeting. For this, additional chairs can be brought in from the outside. The chairs should be comfortable, with arms. They may (and this is not too finicky) match in design the executive's own rubber-tired swivel chair (big-rubber-tired, if possible, to keep it from wearing out the rug or linoleum).

Most executives will not find it necessary to adopt the practice which one harassed business man is said to have used for getting rid of callers. He had the front legs of the main guest chair trimmed off about an inch shorter than the back legs. In consequence, the chair tilted more or less imperceptibly and slid the caller gently but surely forward. This gradual decline made the victim so uncomfortable that, without knowing why, he tried to escape as soon as possible. Social administrators want some of their callers to stay and to be comfortable. The others they can usually dispose of by less mechanical methods. Adjustable chair legs might be useful at times, though!

OFFICE FURNISHINGS. Depending on the executive's wishes, the office may have many other fittings. The man whose desk was just described had on his floor (because it was old and the varnish supplied by the building owner scratched quickly) a plain brown rug (half of a second-hand rug) which matched the furniture and woodwork in color. (For the floor we much prefer linoleum and no rug.) There were two bookcases, brought from his home. In them was a collection of his own books and reference works which pertained more or less to his field of work. These volumes represented, he confessed, his aspiration to reference and reading rather than the actuality.

One shelf in one bookcase was the temporary resting place of all the periodicals, literature, and reports which came in. When our friend was to travel by train, he took with him as much of this material as he could, hoping to clean up a good part of it before his return. When he started on his annual vacation, that shelf was cleared out and all the material in it was taken with him (much to his wife's disgust). It is melancholy to record that, by the time he returned, his office force had already commenced to fill the space again.

This "literature" might, of course, have been piled on the table. There, however, it would have collected dust and been easily disarranged. Again, the printed matter might have been stowed away in the lowest of the shallow drawers of the desk if there had been three of them—but, alas, there were only two! (That is the only argument we know, and it is not a good one, for the three-drawer-deep desk.)

Sectional bookcases with glass doors would without doubt have been much cleaner and more efficient looking than the open bookcases. But the open-shelf bookcases were already available, and the purchase of new ones, in the executive opinion, would have been a violation of one of the principles of efficiency, which is to use the cheapest satisfactory device.

On either side of the two windows in this office were tan pongee curtains, also brought from home. They softened the outlines of the windows and made the room seem less formal. (We are not so much in favor of draperies at office windows as we used to be. Business is business!) There were a few pictures on the walls, mostly enlargements of photographs taken by the room's inhabitant himself.

Another executive we knew decorated his walls with framed, autographed photographs of prominent citizens who had served importantly in his agency, including especially former presidents. Some of the portraits, come to think of it, were not very decorative, although you could not blame the photographer for that. The total effect was that the executive thought he knew the right people. They probably appreciated the tender attention.

Our own present wall decorations are chiefly maps of the city, county, and state, expressive of the nearer and farther reaches of the community which the organization serves. On a shelf stands a plaster cast of the Winged Victory which a devoted office staff, in another city and day, gave us on parting (a pretty symbol of sentiment and aspiration!). Our office, by the way, is only ten feet square, by our own design. Works fine, too!

The seminar previously mentioned suggests that the walls might be decorated further with charts showing the agency's development in finance and service. Maybe so! But they would look as if the executive was keeping his finger on the pulse of the organization and was acting in accordance with his own skilled diagnosis. Actually, wall charts are not much good unless kept up to date, and that process makes them smudgy. We prefer to have our charts (when we have them) drawn, mimeographed, dittoed or photostated, inserted in the ring book in our desk, and mailed in duplicate to responsible personnel. We don't need them so much, though, as we used to think we did. As Cicero inquired, "Quo usque tandem?"—which, roughly translated, means "What the — for?"

At any rate, an executive's office may reflect to a considerable extent his own personality. (Our ebullient seminar will not be downed, though. It likes to see on the walls framed posters and pho-

tographs pertinent to the work of the agency. So do we. Nevertheless we abhor framed photographs of bygone campaign banquets.) There will be something warm and human about a personalized office which will make it more than a mere work room. After all, the administrator spends most of his working hours in his office. Most of his personal contacts are there, too. The office ought to be an expression of its user, within the limits of good taste and businesslike procedure.

EXECUTIVE'S SECRETARY. The effective operation of an executive's office or that of a subexecutive in a departmentalized organization depends in large part on the services of a competent secretary. A good secretary is almost the right and left hand—or at least, a third hand and part of an additional brain—to an executive.

Her duties and responsibilities are many and varied. She will keep the tickler file cleared out, see that incoming mail is put in the proper place, file material in the executive's desk (if he requests it—otherwise how will he know it is there?), look up innumerable addresses and other information, and serve as a buffer for callers who do not really need to see him. She may answer a good deal of his mail, having learned the tone he uses, his style of writing, and the kind of answer he is likely to give on more or less routine questions. She may look up and sort out in advance the information necessary for the answering of letters. She may to an extraordinary degree free her chief of detail and liberate him for the constructive phases of his work which require originality and planning. She may make his engagements for him. With his advice, she may type out his daily schedule. She will keep the records in his desk up to date and in good shape. A good secretary is a veritable jewel almost beyond price—although most secretaries are not paid quite on that basis.

It is usually undesirable for the secretary to share the executive's office. The presence of a third person is always an impediment to the kind of confidential conversation which is sometimes necessary. The talk may be with a member of the staff who must be reprimanded or with whom confidential relationships have to be worked out, or it may be with the representative of another organization, a public official, or a client of the agency. The caller may not realize that the secretary is discreet. In any case, her presence is bound to inhibit the full and free interchange of opinions and of confidence.

Although it is convenient to have the secretary close at hand, this need is not so great as is sometimes imagined. If the executive uses a dictating machine, his secretary need come to his office only when

he buzzes for her to take cylinders or when she brings him messages or mail. It should not be necessary for the secretary to come into his office oftener than an average of half a dozen times a day. The interval between dictating and getting back the transcribed material is usually so short as to fill most of the executive's needs for prompt action.

Many an executive has solved this problem by putting his desk close to the partition between his office and that in which the secretary works. In this partition there may be a window of translucent glass which either slides or swings back and forth. The translucent glass enables the secretary to see whether the executive is busy, without distracting either his attention or that of callers. The window can be opened easily to pass material in and out or to exchange information. With that arrangement, the executive does not need many personal file folders. The secretary can have an auxiliary file in which everything needful may be kept instantly available.

CLEAR GLASS IN THE DOOR. Such a window suggests a further point of office procedure which may be desirable. If the executive has a private office, it is wise to have clear glass in the door to prevent interruption by staff members and callers, who when the door is closed can see through the glass whether he is occupied or not.

Clear glass is also a protection against charges of indecorous conduct which might be made or threatened by a member of the other sex for blackmail purposes. The social work executive is dependent upon his good repute, and he might easily be victimized if hidden behind blank walls and frosted glass. Moreover, similar charges might be made, merely as gossip, by those who did not know what was going on behind an unglazed door and feared—or hoped—for the worst. The appearance of innocence is the best protection for the guiltless.

Further, it is probably a good policy for the executive to be seen to be busy and evidently accessible. Clear glass in the door or partition may occasionally make him feel like the traditional goldfish in a bowl. It may also expose him to some unexpected and unwanted callers. Yet these afflictions are necessary accompaniments of what should be his general policy of complete publicity and openness to public inspection. He has to live most of his life in the public gaze. He might as well have symbolically clear glass in the door—and keep the door open, too, except when closing is temporarily necessary.

With an office arranged according to these general ideas, in spite

of interruptions from the staff and the public the executive should be in good shape, mechanically, to turn out his work rapidly and efficiently.

QUESTIONS

1. What does the best executive you know do about regulating the temperature of his own office?

2. How does he control the light?

3. What does he do about the ventilation?

4. What kind of desk does he have?

5. In what condition does he keep it?

6. What kind of working surface does it have?

7. What kind of equipment or ornaments does he keep on it?

8. Does he use any desk auxiliary, such as a table, stand, or shelf?

9. What is the relationship of this auxiliary, in location, to the desk?

10. What does he keep on this auxiliary?

11. What equipment and material does he keep in his desk? (Better ask him if he minds your calling for all this personal information. If you cannot find a docile executive, try these questions on yourself, but try them anyway.)

12. What other furnishings and decorations does the executive you have selected have in his office?

13. What services does his secretary perform?

14. Is the secretary's desk in his office?

15. Does he have a private office or share one with others? If the latter, what is the arrangement?

16. Does he have clear glass in his door (if there is a door)?

17. How do you think the procedure in these various respects might be improved?

Chapter XII

The Executive's Contacts with Outsiders

EFFECTIVE HUMAN RELATIONS VITAL. So far we have discussed primarily the relationship of the executive (or the sub-executive) to his job within the organization, the facilities he should employ, and the systematic procedures which he should follow for getting his work done promptly and well in accordance with plans and schedules. A good executive, however, cannot limit himself to such mechanical and routine devices and arrangements. He must think in terms of the human aspects of his job and its relations to those persons outside the organization with whom he has contact on behalf of his agency.

TONE TO USE IN CORRESPONDENCE. The value of written agreements has already been discussed. The tone of all written communications, whether memoranda or correspondence, makes a great deal of difference in the attitude of the community toward the organization. The executive should be cordial and courteous in his written communications, considerate of the feelings of others, not brusque, and when possible informal. There is no good reason why he should not in his letters address executives of other social agencies by their first names if he knows them well enough. An exception might be observed when official communications from one organization to another or to an individual are involved and the communication is one obviously of official record. Then the official title and the formal "Mr.," "Miss," or "Mrs." should be used. The tone of the letter should be tempered to the wind of circumstance.

TELEPHONE CONTACTS. Equally important are the executive's telephone contacts. He creates a bad impression if he has his secretary take all calls and ask who is calling. The executive is a public servant. When he is in his office and not tied up in a meeting, he should be available for a telephone conference with anyone who wishes to talk to him. If necessary, he may quietly say that some other member of the staff can better give the inquirer the desired information,

and then have the call switched to the other line. At the telephone, as in other relationships, the executive should avoid the impression of being inaccessible and too important for the ordinary relationships of life.

Sometimes, however, he may find it wise to go to a quiet room where he can work beyond the tyranny of the telephone. If he is in a meeting it certainly should be unnecessary for him to have to answer the telephone and hold up the whole group while he is talking. Under these circumstances he can instruct the telephone operator or his secretary to take the person's name and telephone number and say that she will have him call. Return this call promptly. Nothing is more irritating than to have the secretary say, "Mr. X is in a meeting" or "is talking on another line" and then to have the call returned two hours later, or the next day, or perhaps never.

This procedure also may sometimes be advisable when the executive is in an important conference with an individual. Even then the telephonist had better say that the executive is in a meeting, even though it is only a meeting of two people. If he is in a real conference, the operator should indicate how long it will last and when the return call can be expected. Most people resent being told that they may not talk to Mr. X because he is "in conference." It sounds too exclusive! Perhaps a business man can "get away" with "in conference" and with restricting telephone calls to certain definite periods during the day. Nevertheless, the social worker who is dependent upon public good will for the success of his organization should guard against creating an impression of exclusiveness which may cause serious ill will.

It should almost go without saying that the executive, when available, should answer the telephone promptly and in a pleasant voice, and begin by saying, "This is John Executive" or "This is Miss Executive."

PERSONAL CALLERS. As in the case of certain telephone calls, the executive need not spend much time on some personal interviews. He may soon determine that someone else in the organization can talk with the caller more effectively than he can. In this event he should take the caller to the other person, introduce him, and see that he receives the proper attention.

The executive does not always have to take a caller into his private office; he can meet him in the reception room and then, if the caller requires further consideration, take him into the inner sanctum.

It is an act of courtesy for the executive, if someone is already in his office, to tell another person who is waiting for him how long he is likely to be occupied. He may suggest that the visitor come at another specified time if unable to wait.

(a) Accessibility. The executive should be accessible on demand to personal visitors. He may quite possibly think it good policy to see everyone who wishes to see him, whether that person is a client of the organization or the wealthiest and most influential citizen of the community. This catholicity would be based on the presumption that, if the caller considers his business important enough for the executive's attention, it is sufficiently important, at least from the point of view of public good will, that it receive that attention. Respect for the dignity of human beings will make the executive receive all with prompt consideration and courtesy.

Although it is desirable that definite appointments for calls be made, the executive should never refuse to see people with whom he has no appointment. Insistence on seeing only scheduled callers is one of the best-known ways of creating ill will for the organization and of destroying its usefulness. If the executive cannot see the caller, either he or his secretary should tell him specifically why and make an appointment for another time.

(b) Handling Requests of Callers. The executive naturally will be courteous and cordial to all callers and do his utmost to find out what they want and how he can grant their requests, if possible. He must be capable of quick decisions, based on thorough knowledge, when the subject is one susceptible of prompt action. When acquiescence is to be given, he should grant it enthusiastically and cheerfully rather than grudgingly. On the other hand, if the request is debatable or one that he cannot grant, the executive should state the reason clearly and ask if under the circumstances that would not be the caller's decision also. Or he may say that he will consider it over night and advise the caller the next day. (One of our seminar group declares the Texas way is to "say no and make 'em like it.")

Although rapid decision is desirable, wise decision is essential. The executive who tends to make snap judgments will find it well to temper his snappiness by giving twenty-four-hour consideration to those propositions about which he is not sure. But once he has given a decision against a proposal he should—unless new evidence is produced—be as inflexible in sticking to it as he would be enthusiastic in support of it if he had assented.

(*c*) *Terminating the Call.* Many times—all too often for an overworked executive—callers, unmindful of his problems, stay unreasonably long. The executive should get through with his own part of the interview as soon as possible. Then he must keep in mind the "other fellow's point of view" and be patient, if the caller's ideas seem of some significance. But, if the interview is really finished and nothing more, not even good will, can be gained by continued discussion, the executive can use various means of getting rid of the caller. For example, he may rise (whereupon the caller also will probably rise), move toward the door, express pleasure at the visit, and open the door. Thereupon the caller will find himself in outer darkness but with a feeling that the interview has been satisfactorily terminated. Another interview closer may be to ask, "Have I satisfied you?"

The seminar that has been discussing this book thinks that scheduled callers might be given more conversational rope than unscheduled ones. We think the measure should be not the amount of time the caller has reserved but the importance of himself and his ideas to the organization.

(*d*) *A Good Listener.* Many executives rich in experience or schooled in the techniques of case work, have made it a practice, in dealing with callers, to be good listeners. By listening much they learn a great deal. By saying little they commit themselves to little. Moreover, this practice tends to cut down the length of conferences. Further, the person who finds a good listener in the executive will feel that he is a fine fellow because of his sympathy with his caller's point of view. This sympathy, of course, should proceed from actual interest on the part of the executive.

Most people would rather tell their own troubles and experiences than listen to those of others. Then, too, the talking caller may talk himself into the solution of his problem, without evident direction by the listener. An executive who says little (provided he says something worth while when he does speak) but listens much, intelligently and sympathetically, will be gaining many points of advantage—and he may be more useful to the caller than if he engaged in unnecessary debate or domination.

(*e*) *Speak No Evil.* It would hardly seem necessary to caution executives to say only good things or nothing at all, were it not that so much ill-natured gossip is sometimes heard from them and from other social workers. It is wise never to say an unpleasant or discreditable thing of anyone except when it will help in the solution

of a problem. Nothing is gained ordinarily by tart remarks regarding another person. Often a great deal is lost, because the reputation of the one who makes the remarks is lowered in the opinion of him who hears them. Moreover, such statements often trickle around to their subject, and in that case both the executive and his organization will incur unnecessary ill will. One of the greatest compliments we ever heard paid to any executive was this: "I never heard him speak unkindly of anyone."

(f) Stick to Facts. A further sound practice is never to say anything not based on fact. If you do not know the answer to a question, admit it, say that you will find out, and then do so. Moreover, be objective—express your facts without distortion because of your feelings or prejudice.

(g) Do Not Promise Too Much. Do not make easy promises and take on many unrelated outside responsibilities which will conflict with official duties. It is better to refuse, because you must do your own work well, than to acquiesce in so many requests that nothing whatever is done satisfactorily. Then, when you have made a promise, fulfill it completely and on time.

(h) Boost Others, Not Yourself. Another sound conversational principle for the executive is to boost others rather than himself. Nothing is more tiresome than the executive who always says "I did this" and "I did that." Usually he did not do it; his staff or his volunteers did it. In social work, as elsewhere, the person who considers himself "the whole show" is a nuisance. The executive should be painstaking in giving credit to his staff and his volunteer workers so that they may feel responsible for results and happy to continue working for these results. The executive, as a matter of fact, can do very little without his staff and volunteers. He is wise to cultivate them and to give them more credit than is their due, even though by so doing he lessens his own rightful credit. Their credit is his because they are part of "his" organization. "We" sounds better and usually is more truthful than "I."

BUILDING UP A CONSTITUENCY. The executive will also find it wise as far as possible to keep in touch with his constituency, such as his board members, his committee members, and his leading volunteer workers, by personal calls or by pleasant notes whenever the opportunity offers. He should try, during the less hectic periods of the year (if any), to spend a definite time away from his office each day, calling upon the members of his official "family," getting their points of view and suggestions, answering their questions, and clear-

ing up their objections. From the information he secures he will derive benefit from acquaintance with human attitudes and from his constituency's feeling that it knows him and the organization.

One good way to make such contacts, under pressure of busy days, is to ask the "contactee" to have lunch with you. He will be pleased by your hospitality, and you will both be at ease away from the demands of callers. This is one of the reasons why, in our executive years, we have always belonged to a club. It is easier in that way to play host. You can charge the lunch to your account, without the possibility of haggling as to who shall pay. If there is no suitable club available to you, you can arrange for a charge account in a hotel dining room.

BEWARE OF TOO MUCH PERSONALITY. On the other hand, the executive must look out lest he trade too much upon his personality. In the smaller cities especially, social agencies tend to take on the name of the executive. The visiting nurse association may be known as "Miss Jones's organization," the family service society as "Mr. Brown's organization," and the children's hospital as "Dr. White's organization." The executive should take pains to present every official proposition and to make every official contact as the representative of his organization. Never should he ask anyone to do for him personally what the "requestee" would not do for the organization.

The executive should proceed on the basis of principle rather than on that of personality. He may make his organization seem the more attractive because he himself is charming and interesting. Yet he must guard against building up a personal constituency in place of one for the organization. He should so conduct himself that when he leaves the organization the loyalty of those who are on the staff and in the community will remain steadfast to the organization. Its principles will have been expressed through him. In behalf of it he will have labored with a single purpose.

The greatest compliment that can be paid to an executive when he leaves his job is that no one in the organization or community afterward has to ask him a single question. This can only occur when the staff has been so well organized and its volunteers have been so well informed that the work will proceed as steadily and smoothly as though he were on a vacation instead of in a new job. Then the new executive, by reason of the records which his predecessor has left and the attitudes he has created, can take up the work exactly where it has been laid down and can continue with steadily growing success.

COURTESY TO THOSE WHO SERVE THE AGENCY. The executive should be especially careful to follow at least the ordinary rules of courtesy in his relationship with out-of-town speakers and with others who have rendered services to the organization. Bills for traveling expenses and for honoraria (when promised) should be promptly paid —if not before the speaker leaves the city, at least as soon as his statement of expense is received. Even though no expense is involved, the executive should promptly follow up his own verbal expression of appreciation by a written note of thanks on behalf of the organization for the service the speaker has rendered—a service usually rendered at a considerable expenditure of time and effort.

If the speaker is the executive of another agency, it is a pleasant gesture to write the president a note of appreciation of the quality of service rendered. That enhances the speaker's prestige with his own board—the best possible reward. To make sure that the president passes along the good word, you might suggest that he read the letter at the next board meeting. You might also send the executive a carbon copy, so that he will know what you have done and can jog his president's memory.

WHEN AND HOW TO FIGHT. In spite of the cordial contacts which the executive ordinarily will develop, he will sometimes have to meet difficult situations. He may have to deal with individuals who are dishonest or who attack him or his organization and cannot be persuaded to change their courses.

Ordinarily "knock-down and drag-out" fights are unnecessary. If at the first symptom of trouble the executive will talk with the person who is in a belligerent state of mind, the difficulty can usually be smoothed out. Disagreement and misunderstanding generally arise through lack of sufficient facts. The executive should take for granted that the other person is sensible enough to listen to reason in view of the facts which he can produce. Stating the facts promptly to objectors will not only obviate the need for most arguments but will usually win friends and supporters for the organization.

Yet, if there must be an argument, the executive should go into it with full facts on his side and with all his might. The injunction of President Theodore Roosevelt "to walk lightly but carry a big stick" applies to the executive. Do not fight unless you have to and have reason to think you can win. Then, if you must, hit with all your might, strive for a knockout on the first blow, and keep after your opponent until you have won.

HANDLING COMPLAINTS. The same kind of alert activity should be practiced in the matter of complaints. Many complaints regarding the work of the organization are unjustified. On the other hand, social agencies, being but human, often do make mistakes.

(*a*) *Prompt and Personal Action.* The executive should acknowledge every complaint and criticism promptly, investigate the exact facts regarding it, and then give a full explanation to the complainant—usually either going himself or sending a competent staff member. Sometimes the objection can be handled satisfactorily by telephone or by mail. Often an important board member can be used to clear up the difficulty, especially if the complainant is influential or represents special personality problems.

The executive should respect a sincere complaint as he does any other responsible statement. He should be quickly accessible to callers who bring criticism. If a worker is the cause of the complaint, it may be desirable to have him talk with the complainant. If the organization is really in error, this should be admitted, measures should be taken to prevent its happening again, and the one who made the complaint should be informed of these measures. If serious damage has been done, it should of course be rectified as far as possible.

The complainant who feels that prompt and sufficient action has been taken usually forgets his irritation and becomes a real "booster" for the organization. A complaint in reality affords an opportunity for interpretation.

(*b*) *"The Customer Is Always Right."* Even if the complainant is wrong, the organization should yet have the attitude of the great mercantile houses that "the customer is always right."

Generally the criticism is unjustified. For example, recently a gentleman in our town who claimed he was a competent engineer stirred up a great fuss when he saw some galvanized iron boxes and ventilating fans unpacked in front of the refurbished Salvation Army Citadel. He declared he was not going to give to the Community Chest if the Army spent money on air-conditioning its quarters. He knew air-conditioning apparatus when he saw it. He objected violently, but he subsided when the Salvation Army major wheeled into action. The latter merely explained in Christian tones and terms that the new apparatus was a pair of circulating gas heaters for the auditorium.

The explanation of the actual facts should be handled courte-

ously so that the complainant does not feel that he is being criticized. The one who is handling the complaint should take it for granted that the complainant is sincere and justified in view of the supposed facts which have brought about his objection. Additional facts and interpretation should be supplied, and the complainant should then be asked for his opinion in view of the added information.

It is wise to notify at least the president of the organization of any complaints and how they are handled. It may be well, further, to advise the board. Its members thus will be able to deal with similar objections if they arise, or with the same complaint if the individual has talked to many people about it.

(*c*) *Public Answer to Criticism.* Anonymous complaints should not ordinarily be answered. Still, the executive should decide whether they call attention to a condition which needs adjustment. Sometimes complaint may serve as a basis for a newspaper story. Although specifically the story will not answer the criticism, it will give facts that will explain the difficulty in the mind of any unknown objector. Indeed, all complaints may be used as bases for newspaper publicity and radio talks. Positive statements thus disseminated will help to clear the minds of the public. If one person has an objection and voices it, it is possible that hundreds of persons may have the same objection and not voice it. Complaints therefore may be used as valuable indications of public opinion and, properly handled, may serve both to rectify the organization's practice and to direct its policy of interpretative publicity.

(*d*) *Apologies.* An executive should not try to turn away merited criticism. When an apology is to be made by the executive, it should be whole-hearted and "clean-breasted." The complainant, knowing that there can be nothing worse, is satisfied. If the executive only apologizes or explains in a halfway manner, the objector may feel that much more could be said. The following rule holds good: Be sincere, dignified, frank, honest, courteous. Stand up for what you believe, yet give the other fellow credit for his opinion. Secure a basis for mutual understanding through full presentation of all the facts.

BUILDING GOOD WILL. The executive, however, should not wait for complaints before he concerns himself with the public relationships of his organization and the creation of good will. He should be an ambassador to the public, obtaining the support of the community for his organization and for social work in general.

(*a*) *Personification of the Agency.* In every possible way he must, by his official and personal activity, build up a cordial attitude on the part of the community toward himself and toward his organization. Whether on or off duty, he is to a large extent the personification of his organization in the minds of many people.

(*b*) *Know the Community!* The executive's responsibility for creating public opinion means first of all that he must know his community—its likes and dislikes, the objections to his organization, and the criticisms, as well as those respects in which it is held in good repute. He must know all kinds of people and their attitudes—board members, volunteers, social workers, contributors, executives of other social agencies, city and county officials, ministers, newspapermen, leaders in civic and community endeavors in various parts of his community, labor leaders and industrial leaders, and key people in political, racial, and nationality groups. His acquaintanceship should represent, so far as this is practicable, a cross section of the community life.

(*c*) *Remembering Names.* McCandless says:[1]

> So important is acquaintanceship that it should not be left to casual development but should be part of a definitely planned program on the part of the executive and each staff member to expand his acquaintance to the limit. Have a definite plan of learning and retaining names. Be sure to get accurately the name of the man you meet. Learn some facts about him—where he works, what phase of activity he is in, what church he belongs to, etc. Look closely at him and try to associate name, face, and facts, and any unusual physical characteristic. At the first opportunity write down his name and a key fact or two. Do so with other men as you meet them from day to day. Review the list regularly, trying to visualize the name and face. Study the membership and other lists from time to time to recall as many as possible of the men who appear there. When you talk to such men afterwards call them by name and make it evident that you know them. Talk to them about the things they are interested in and learn to be a good listener as well as an interesting talker.

Another useful precept in the recollection of names is: Keep in mind the fact that we remember the things in which we are interested. If you are really interested in the people you meet and are concerned about complying with their wishes as far as possible, you will probably have little difficulty in remembering them.

A further memory aid is to visualize the spelling of the person's name. If the name is not spoken clearly in introduction, ask that it

[1] McCandless, James W., *Association Administration*, Association Press, New York, 1925.

be repeated. If you still are not sure of it, ask how it is spelled and spell it over to yourself, "see" it as well as say it.

Before meeting a new group of people, such as a new committee, read over carefully a list of those who are likely to be present until you have the names well in mind. Then it will be much easier to associate a person's appearance with his name as already visualized.

Again, during a meeting with people you have not known before, you may ask someone who does know those present to list them in sequence around the table or row by row. Study the list backward and forward and at random until you can attach each name to each face without reference to the list. After the meeting go over the seating chart again and again, until you are sure of each name and its owner.

(*d*) *Attending Meetings.* The executive also has the task of meeting people who will be helpful to his organization and of representing it properly. One form of contact which may easily be overworked is his appearance in behalf of his organization at meetings of various sorts, both those within his agency's field and those of general interest.

Certainly there are important meetings at which the agency's responsibility must be represented by the executive. Also there are some public meetings in which it is well for him to be an interested participant. Regrettably some executives apparently suffer from "meetingitis." They seem to attend more meetings than they need to—meetings at which their organization might be represented just as well or better by someone else or not represented at all.

Executives often appear unwilling to give a staff member a chance to represent the organization, when the staff member could act in this capacity just as well as they can. More than that, the staff member could learn something of participative social work. In the case of community councils of social agencies, for example, the executive of a member organization often names himself on too many committees. The result is that he is overburdened by attending meetings and has little opportunity to attend to the internal work of his organization, or that if he fails to be present his organization is not represented at all. The organization's delegate may often be a subexecutive, a social work practitioner, a volunteer, or a board member. This representative can present the agency's viewpoint adequately and bring back to the board, the committee, or the executive what he has learned and helped to decide at the meeting he has attended.

Diversified representation is frequently advisable at public meet-

ings. The executive often overrates the importance of his appearance at a civic celebration. No one, as a rule, will miss him if he is not there. Assuredly if he is present he can probably make some worth-while contacts, but one has to do something more in life than "make contacts"! A reasonable procedure in such a case would indicate that if the executive as a private citizen would have attended this celebration, he should go. If this is not the case, he should consider carefully whether his attendance is worth the required time and effort in view of his other duties and responsibilities.

A great deal of money can be spent by the organization, or by the executive personally, in paying for luncheon and dinner meeting tickets. Much of this money never comes back to the executive or to the organization in the way of tangible results. Some executives have found themselves so oppressed by demands to attend luncheon and dinner meetings that they make it a rule rarely to go to them unless they are actually to participate in the program or in the discussion, or unless by their own manifest presence they can render courtesy and express the agency's good will better than can anyone else available.

Other executives, revolted mentally and digestively by the succession of formal luncheon meetings which sometimes seem to be necessary, do not attend the luncheon but drop in afterward for a part of the program. Yet meeting with luncheon companions may be more valuable than the program which follows the consumption of the viands.

If an executive in a large city went to all the meetings that he might attend, he would find that he was doing practically nothing else. The tests which he should usually apply are whether by his attendance he can make a real contribution either to his organization or to the one that is holding the meeting, and whether equally valuable (if not better) service could be rendered by some member of his staff or by a layman who might go in his place. One advantage of sending a staff officer or a board member is that his sense of responsibility for the work of the organization is thereby enhanced. If he is a person of importance he may give the agency additional prestige by serving as its deputy.

Even within these limitations, the executive will have ample opportunity to attend meetings of all sorts. At them he can sample the various phases of public opinion which influence the work of his agency, he can favorably influence that opinion by the evidence of his competence and good will, and he can serve his community by effective participation in discussion.

(*e*) *Public Speaking.* As ambassador from his agency to the community, the executive also has a responsibility for speaking before community groups about the work of his organization and on related subjects. Opportunities for speaking can be created by the public relations director, by the speakers' bureau of the community chest and council or of the agency itself, or through the executive's own growing reputation for competence as a public speaker. The earnest executive will train himself in public speaking in order to improve himself as much as possible. He will remember the two consoling adages that public speaking is merely "enlarged conversation" and that the man who knows his subject need not be afraid of any audience. As a much experienced administrator once said to us, "The executive carries the responsibility of being able to make a more comprehensive, interesting, and convincing interpretation of the work of his agency through public speaking than any one else in the community may reasonably be expected to make."

One of the most experienced community chest executives in the country once told us that he thought the chief reason for the success of his community chest was that he himself, an experienced speaker and a former member of the state legislature, had spoken in person before practically every group in the community. This was a tremendous task, but it bore results which justified it.

This optimistic statement should perhaps be restricted by the qualification that the executive should find out the kind of audience which he best understands and with which he is most effective. If there are some groups with which he is not effective or to which he can make no contribution, it will be better for a member of his staff or board or a competent volunteer to give the speech.

Some agency executives have thought it wise to develop good will toward themselves and their organizations by speaking, on occasion, on some other subject than their own organization or on something perhaps indirectly connected with it. For example, the executive of a children's agency, just back from a trip to Europe as a child welfare consultant, might talk on conditions there as he saw them, mentioning his local agency only incidentally. His talk might be so interesting that it would reflect great credit on himself and on his organization. The executive who is a facile speaker, however, should avoid wandering too far from his subject. He may find himself giving a great deal of time to speeches that make no contribution to the development of an understanding of his organization and its problems.

(*f*) *Radio Talks.* Another form of public speaking through which the executive can serve his agency and his community is the radio talk. A good speaker on social service subjects is welcomed by the radio stations. This may be partly because they have an obligation to provide community and civic service programs as a condition of retaining their federal licenses for operation. To prepare and present effective radio talks requires much study, practice, and effort, but it is worth while. We are still amazed at the number of people who evidently listen to our weekly talks. (Maybe you would be, too, if you heard them.)

(*g*) *Keeping the Publicity Channels Open.* As a creator and interpreter of public opinion, the executive is also responsible for making contacts with publicity channels. This is entirely apart from his responsibility for directing or executing a public relations program. He should know the editors of the daily papers in his community and have both their confidence and that of their editorial staffs. He should always be available to reporters who want information about his organization or about any welfare subjects.

Occasionally the executive should thank the editors for their cooperation and ask them for any suggestions about public opinion which he should have in mind so that this may be changed, if necessary. He should tell them that he is always available for any questions about his organization or his field of work (even though this may entail an occasional telephone call at midnight when the morning paper is about to be "put to bed"), and if he cannot answer them at once he should say that he will get the necessary information. He may give the editors any suggestions which occur to him for stories or editorials outside of his field, as a slight return for their service to his agency. The executive may also render various special services to the newspapers, such as offering to arrange for authorities to review books on social work and sociology. He will find that this mutual relation with the press will be tremendously helpful, both in the suggestions which he will receive for the more effective interpretation of his agency's work to the public and in the more liberal consideration that will be given to publicity material from his organization.

If such a basis of mutual service is maintained, most newspapers will gladly refer to the executive complaints about his organization before they are published. Complaints to the newspapers usually are inaccurate and can be kept from publication by a statement of the facts. If published, the complaint can be accompanied in the

same story by a statement from the executive or the president of the agency which will prevent the "kick" from doing any further harm than is inherent in the facts.

The discreet executive, however, while making these contacts of mutual benefit, will avoid seeking personal publicity through this unofficial relationship. The less said about his personal activities and those of his family in the society columns, for example, the better it is ordinarily for the organization.

In these various contacts it is usually wise for the executive never actually to submit material to the newspapers for publicity, except in one of the smaller communities. This work may better be handled by a full-time or part-time public relations director or by a public relations committee. The executive's relationship will be stronger if he asks advice from the newspapers rather than suggests the use of particular pieces of publicity material regarding his agency. He should appear not as a suppliant for support but as an equal factor in the life of the community.

The executive's relations with the newspaper editors may be matched in principle by his contacts with those who manage other media of publicity, such as the officers of a Motion Picture Exhibitors League, the managers of radio stations, the leading ministers of the city, and so on through what might easily be a long list of persons who influence and control public opinion. He should, for example, be in touch with city and county officials, commercial, labor, and civic leaders, and other people of influence in the community, as a means of securing their ideas about public opinion with regard to his organization. These contacts will help to influence public opinion through the development of cordial relations and the giving of accurate information regarding the work of the agency. Some executives make lists of key people and call on them or invite them to lunch as they have the opportunity.

(*h*) *Gathering "Goat Feathers."* The executive's diplomatic status, however, is sometimes strained by the demands made on his time in connection with participation in community movements outside the actual work of his organization and its direct co-operative relationships. It is wise for him to engage only in those outside activities (aside from the public movements in which he must represent his organization) in which he would normally take part as a private citizen. He thus might participate in the various professional bodies connected with social work, as well as in the activities of church, club, parent-teacher association, civic organization, and Boy Scout troop committees. On the other hand, he should avoid

gathering too many of what Ellis Parker Butler once called "goat feathers"—those jobs which the community will wish on a willing person—jobs which get him and his organization nothing and which keep him from performing the professional service which he should render.

The executive may well ask whether he should participate in public campaigns for philanthropic funds outside of those of the community chest of which his organization may be a member. If there still is competition for funds between social agencies in the community, there may be a serious question as to whether he should engage in a campaign which will compete with his own organization for public support. Under certain circumstances he may find it advisable to help in the membership campaign of the chamber of commerce, especially in the smaller communities. Yet he should weigh carefully the benefits to be derived by the community from such service and compare them with the benefits it would receive if he devoted this time to his own job. On the other hand, he should consider the services rendered to his own organization and consequently should be willing to render reciprocal service, especially in an advisory capacity, for the sake of good will toward his organization. He should also serve on committees of outside organizations which may be connected with his own work. For example, the director of a social settlement might serve on the boys' work committee of a "service club," so as to make sure that its community program fits in with community needs and in order to learn about those needs.

The executive who takes part in too many movements often finds that there is some question about when he does his own work. Critics may object that the public through its tax or contributed funds is paying him for his job and not for work on behalf of innumerable other organizations. Obviously the executive should mix discretion concerning agency responsibility with the valor of public service and community good will. He should follow a course of moderation which interprets his own responsibility as a citizen and as an agency executive in terms of broad community policy and of constructive relationship to the creation of public opinion.

(*i*) *Joining*. The problem of the executive's relationship to outside activities suggests the question, often asked, as to what organizations he should join (in a different sense than the "participation" which has just been described). The "joiner" is as abhorrent in social work as in other presumably cultured circles.

The executive will find it well to consider the problem first of all

as a citizen and as a member of a profession. From that point of view, he should join those organizations with which he would normally affiliate—such as church, social clubs, and lodges—and groups that correspond to his hobbies or special interests, such as camera clubs, drama guilds, and the like. As a matter of professional responsibility he should also belong to professional groups in his field, such as the American Association of Social Workers, the National Conference of Social Work, the American Association of Medical Social Workers, the state and local conferences of social work, and similar groups which advance his professional standing and add to his professional ability.

He should pay his own dues for all memberships which primarily advance him in his own profession through furnishing information, prestige, and contacts. The meticulous executive will be zealous to pay more than his share of his memberships, lest the suspicion arise that he is using his official connection and the membership payments of his organization to advance his personal interests.

On the other hand, he may belong to certain organizations in his community purely in his official capacity as the executive of his agency. Many social agencies follow the example of business corporations in paying the dues of their executives in chambers of commerce, advertising clubs, "knife and fork" clubs (such as the Rotary, Kiwanis, Optimists, and Exchange), where the purpose of membership is to make contacts with other elements of the community and to develop co-operative relationships for the agency.

The board of the organization should decide whether it thinks such a membership is worth paying for. If its decision is negative, the executive must then decide whether he himself wishes to pay for membership in the organization as one that offers personal affiliations which seem to him desirable. He should remember that many of these organizations will probably be represented on his own board of directors and that some of the co-operative relationships can thus be developed without his participation in every organized group in town. If he belongs to too many organizations he may run the danger of acquiring ill repute through the ineffectiveness of his participation in any one or more. Moreover, the keen edge of good will may be dulled by the repetitiousness of his contacts.

A sage executive once gave us the following advice: "You will be benefited and your work furthered if you have pretty wide outside contacts. You thus will meet folks in a different way than through your social service job." This advice, taken in moderation, seems to

be wise. There is great danger that the social worker will walk too much in the rarefied atmosphere of social work and will be too much the professional, not breathing in sufficiently the common aspirations of mankind. He must learn to get along with all kinds and conditions of people.

(j) *What May He Advocate?* Akin to the problem of membership in other organizations is that of the executive's responsibility and freedom in making public statements and in advocating principles which may not be those of his organization. He should not, as a general practice, publish an opinion or make public statements regarding subjects that are outside his field. He must also remember that a leader cannot go too far ahead of the public opinion of his group or he will lose his group. Some martyrs have attained converts by their agonies; many other would-be martyrs by their sacrifices have merely lost the opportunity for leadership. The far-sighted executive will find it well not to seem too radical in making statements which will affect public opinion. Rather, fixing his course toward an objective far ahead, he will work toward it bit by bit, sometimes retracing his course but never appearing to hurry unduly.

This counsel applies to the executive's unofficial statements as well. It is true (unfortunately perhaps) that in most communities he cannot separate himself from his official connection. If he speaks at all, he is known to those who hear him as the executive of his organization. What may be his private opinion is thus almost certain to be considered the policy of his agency. He should not use his official prestige to advance his personal ends and private beliefs. Thus in political affairs—the example of some distinguished social workers to the contrary notwithstanding—it is a matter of discretion and of ethics for him to avoid personal advocacies and to limit himself in his public statements to expressions of principle.

For example, an executive may find it unwise to come out publicly for one or another candidate for governor of his state. This personal adherence would alienate some people from the organization's program, which might depend for its success on the co-operation of all elements in the community. This individual action might also be disastrous to the agency's service program if the opponent were elected to office and sought retribution from the agency whose executive had opposed him.

On the other hand, since public officials under a merit system are usually enjoined by law from political activity, the executive of the private agency will find it good policy to work with all political par-

ties for the incorporation in their platforms of planks which advance some special interest of the agency—such, for example, as more adequate appropriations for public health and welfare, improved services to children, and so on.

Actually, in many cases executives have come out strongly for unpopular causes. This may be justified when the organization is the reflection of a great leader and when the board represents an individual who has done an extraordinary piece of creative work rather than the agency itself. Yet, when the executive in the more usual sense is the employee of a board of directors and with them a trustee for the effective expenditure of contributed funds, he will find it wise not to make public statements or to engage in public conduct which will endanger co-operation or alienate support, unless this procedure is in line with the agency's policy.

If the executive feels that he must speak in a way that might be dangerous to either of these factors in organization life, he should first secure the approval of his board of directors. If they refuse to consent to his proposed course of action and he decides that the issue is so important that he must express himself, the fair procedure then is for him to resign and throw himself wholeheartedly into this cause.

Certainly nothing can justify the practice of some executives who apparently use their agencies to support parties, candidacies, or movements, when the individual's support means nothing and that of the organization (implied in the individual's use of his title and his known connection) means everything.

(*k*) *Behavior.* Not public statements alone, but often—and unhappily—behavior as well affects the popular attitude toward the work of a social agency. The executive, unfortunate as it may seem to many libertarians, must know his community well and govern his conduct in accordance with the standards of community life. For example, notoriously immoderate consumption of alcoholic liquors by the executive would in most communities adversely affect opinion regarding him, his organization, and social work generally as well. In some very conservative communities dancing in public by the executive might be harmful to the program of the social agency. In others, appearance at certain types of theatrical entertainments might be regarded as unseemly from the point of view of the kind of work in which the agency is engaged. In still others, playing cards on Sunday, if seen, might alienate important elements in community support.

The community always has its critical eye on the executive as spender of its funds, whether contributed or paid in taxes. Moreover, he has to be a good example for the people whom his agency serves. This is especially true of a youth or child welfare agency. The executive is a sort of community employee, a pastor of health and welfare. He may feel like an embarrassed guppy in an aquarium of all-too-crystalline clarity. That is one of the penalties of community service. A state song goes, "The eyes of Texas are upon you." That is true in principle, wherever the executive may go.

Even in those communities where conviviality is generally accepted, the social executive will gain rather than lose by a general policy of abstemiousness. Living in what might generally be considered too elaborate a house or driving too expensive an automobile, even though the executive has his own income, might cause criticism which would affect contributions and support.

Numerous examples might readily be given of the ways in which an executive might unthinkingly cause serious damage to the work of his organization by conduct considered proper in some communities but not in others. If he feels that the burdens made necessary by community attitudes are intolerable, it is better for him to move to a community whose folkways are more in accordance with his own practices than to persist in manners and attitudes which will seriously handicap his organization. The ancient counsel, "When in Rome do as the Romans do," applies thoroughly to this situation.

When the executive takes a position in a community, he accepts, by implication at least, the conditions of community life there. He should conform to local customs in so far as they are not dishonest or disreputable. He should endeavor in his conduct to cause attention not by what the local citizens may consider his eccentricities but by the excellence of his work and his sympathy with and understanding of the spirit of the community. An integrated life for the individual includes the community as an extension of himself.

The thoughtful executive, having in mind the greatest success of his work, will doubtless discover that by observance of local customs and the development of a reputation for moderation in personal conduct he will gain freedom for the more effective development and service of his organization. This is perhaps his prime task as ambassador to the general public.

(l) Place of Residence. Some executives feel they must make one further concession to public opinion, although many others do not approve of this attitude. This is the belief that the executive should,

as part of his job of creating and knowing public opinion and sharing in the life of his community, live in that community and be a part of its life. For example, the head resident of a settlement cannot do his work thoroughly and well unless he lives in the settlement or adjacent to it and is part of the neighborhood (modern community center practice to the contrary notwithstanding). Similarly, it is advisable for the executive of a family society, a community chest, a visiting nurse organization, or a local public health association to live in the major community which his organization serves. He should suffer its disabilities, share its problems, and add his enthusiasm as a citizen to the satisfaction of the technical community engineer or social worker.

It is not sufficient for the executive to live in the suburbs, outside the city limits. He should live in that part of the community which is most important in the life of his organization. If he lives outside the city and has to go to the mayor with proposals for the improvement of municipal social work, the executive may perhaps be less enthusiastic and effective because he himself does not suffer from the evil conditions which exist. Moreover, he is less likely to be successful in gaining his objective because the mayor probably knows that he is not a voter and has no official voice in local affairs. In the same way, if the executive goes to the board of education in a city to discuss the improvement of public health work in the public schools, and if he is not a resident of the city and his own children are in private or suburban schools, his plea is less effective than if he were a citizen and taxpayer in the community he seeks to benefit.

In accepting a community job, the executive accepts also the responsibilities and the privileges of community life. He cannot work as enthusiastically or as well if he does not suffer from the evil conditions that may exist there, benefit from their improvement, and live as one with those citizens who are making common cause with his organization in service to the community. If an executive, on going to a new city and a new job, puts his children in the public schools of that city, buys a house there, and joins the organizations to which he as a citizen would normally belong, he gives the impression that he is sharing in the common lot of all its citizens. He appears not merely as an outside "promoter" but as a part of the community life. This appearance is of great advantage to his organization.

Such a relationship may be a source of satisfaction to him also, because what he does benefits not only his organization but also

himself and those whom he holds most dear. It is a great advantage (and a great satisfaction) to be able to address a meeting of the supporters of one's organization as "fellow citizens."

EFFICIENCY TECHNIQUE; A GUIDE, NOT A RULE. Now (and at not too great length it is to be hoped) we have arrived at the conclusion of the specific discussion of those factors which go to make up the technique of personal efficiency for the executive. Obviously no individual executive will find it possible to attempt to possess all the personal qualities, to secure all the training, or to follow all the principles of planning, study, record keeping, discipline, office arrangement, secretarial use, handling of complaints, reception of callers, and public ambassadorship which have been discussed.

It is not even suggested that complete adherence would be desirable. Each executive secures his own results in his own way. All that is to be hoped is that this statement will serve as a basis for partial agreement or disagreement and for raising questions as to the proper and satisfactory procedure for executives, and that it may help them to formulate their own complete and integrated philosophy of work and their own set of working habits. Thus equipped, they may be enabled to do their work a little better and to progress toward the attainment of their personal and official goals in whatever seems to them the best way.

QUESTIONS

1. What is the tone of the correspondence of some social agency you know?
2. What kind of telephone contacts does the executive of that agency make?
3. How does he handle personal callers?
4. Are you a good listener?
5. Do you speak no evil?
6. Do you stick to facts in your statements?
7. Do you promise too much?
8. Do you boost yourself?
9. What does an executive whom you know do about "building up a constituency"?
10. Does he trade upon his own personality or that of his organization?
11. What does he do about obligations to out-of-town speakers?
12. How do you do your fighting (if any)?

13. How does this executive handle complaints?

14. How does he build good will for his agency?

15. How do you remember names?

16. What does this executive do about attending meetings?

17. How well does he speak in public—and how frequently?

18. What is his relationship to the various channels of publicity?

19. Do you gather "goat feathers"?

20. What is the policy of this executive on "joining"?

21. What is his policy on public statements outside the field of his agency?

22. What attitudes are there in your community, compared with those in some other community, which might modify the behavior of a social agency executive?

23. Where do social work executives whom you know live in relation to their jobs?

24. How do you think the practices which you have described in answer to these questions might be improved?

Chapter XIII

Office Location, Condition, and Arrangement

THE OFFICE AS THE ADMINISTRATION CENTER. The office of a social agency is the starting place and usually the scene of those activities which will be discussed in the later chapters of this book. In the office the staff carries on much of its work. There are kept the records of the agency. There its correspondence is handled. From it public relations material and procedures emanate. There financial and service programs are formed. Through it and out of it develop co-operative relationships with other social agencies and with the community. The office is the headquarters of the social agency. Its branch offices, if any, are the headquarters of its branch activities. Thus the office may be regarded as the business and professional home of the staff.

The office may be the center of the agency's contacts with board members, with committee members, with volunteers, with the dues-paying membership, with contributors, with clients, patients, inmates, and other users of its facilities, with the representatives of co-operating agencies, and with citizens who wish either to make complaints or to offer advice and suggestions. The location of the office, its appearance, its arrangement, its equipment, and the methods of its management profoundly affect all these relationships.

An office with high standards may be a vital factor in the success of the organization's program of service. Conversely, an office inconveniently located in a run-down or disreputable neighborhood and shabbily furnished, inadequately equipped, sloppy in appearance, inconveniently arranged, and slackly managed may be the chief factor in the failure of an organization either to render the service it should with the funds available or to secure the funds it needs to carry on an adequate program of service.

LOCATION IN THE COMMUNITY. Manifestly the location of the office is a matter of great importance. (We are speaking here of the location

of the office of a non-institutional agency. If the agency is an institution, the office usually is a part of the plant.)

(a) Accessibility. The convenience of the office to those who make the greatest and most important use of it should be a primary consideration. For example:

A social agency which for its effectiveness depends on the co-operation of business men as volunteers (such as the Boy Scouts or a community chest) should have its office as convenient as possible to the paths taken by these men to and from lunch or to and from their homes. Here the location will probably be well toward the center of the business district and fairly near the important clubs and financial institutions, even though the parking of automobiles may present difficulties.

An organization whose board members and volunteers are largely housewives might find it more advantageous to be in a location convenient to a shopping center and yet one where parking space for cars could readily be found. For such an agency, accessibility to pleasant luncheon facilities might be important.

Another agency which works mainly through a professional staff, perhaps with out-of-town contacts, might consider the speed and convenience of street-car or bus transportation for its staff members, or perhaps handiness to the railroad station for out-of-town callers.

A social agency in close contact with the public schools might locate its office, if such an arrangement could be made, at or close to the headquarters of the board of education. An agency that deals with the courts—for example, one that handles problems of delinquency—might try to locate its office either in or near the courthouse. An organization that has important contacts with administrators of public welfare activities might welcome the opportunity to be in the city hall or county courthouse, if the welfare department also has its headquarters there. This is often the case with family societies, public health nursing organizations, and anti-tuberculosis leagues, especially in small communities.

Again, consideration of the co-operation which results from direct contact with other social agencies might persuade a social agency to occupy space in a social service building along with other agencies of the community, even though other aspects of convenience could not be completely met.

An agency primarily for contact with clients—such, for example, as a clinic or a day nursery—should be convenient to transporta-

tion and to those areas from which come the largest and most important group of the patients or clients.

(*b*) *Avoid Made-Over Residences.* Sometimes well intentioned friends suggest that the agency take over a former residence in the "interstitial" area just outside the business district, or such a structure may be offered as a gift. The board and the executive should consider the proposal critically. They should only accept it if the proposal reasonably well meets the standards described in this chapter. A building of this character is likely to be unsatisfactory in location, difficult and expensive to alter for efficient and economical agency use, hard to light, heat, and ventilate when big rooms are cut into small ones, costly to maintain, and a hazardous fire risk. All the teeth of the residential gift horse should be closely examined. He should only be accepted if sound of wind and limb.

(*c*) *Character of the Neighborhood.* The very character of the neighborhood affects the agency. A business neighborhood of second-hand furniture stores, pawn shops, and "hand-me-down" clothes emporiums, even though cheap in rent, might cause a loss in prestige which would more than overbalance the greater expense of an office in a more dignified and reputable neighborhood. Other local conditions which may affect the location are convenience to inexpensive and satisfactory eating places for the staff members, proximity to shopping centers for employees at noon or after work, and social conditions in the neighborhood itself. For instance, the women members of a staff, though willing to go from the office to street cars and busses during the day, may be afraid to make the trip at night when working overtime, because of inadequate street lighting, lack of police protection, or proximity to the hang-outs of loafers.

Moreover, the location of the building should be considered in its relation to nuisances. Unpleasant odors from factories, laundries, or other industrial establishments should be avoided. So also should be the soft-coal smoke from chimneys, which causes unnecessary dirt in the office. It is well, furthermore, to keep away from noisy factories and from especially clangorous transportation systems.

(*d*) *Convenience to Meeting Places.* A further factor of importance in office location is convenience to meeting places for the board and committees of the social agency, if there are no such facilities in the building itself. It seems foolish ordinarily for a social agency to spend money in additional rent to provide a room

for the relatively infrequent meetings of its board and committees —space that would be idle between meetings. Those who are selecting the location should take into consideration the time the staff members would spend in traveling to other available meeting places if the office were not in convenient proximity to such facilities.

One may qualify all that has gone before and that follows in this chapter with the proviso that during the period of office shortage which began during the Second World War and has continued after it, all standards have been off. You take what you can get, where and at what price you can get it, and be thankful!

INTERNAL FACTORS IN LOCATING OFFICE. Although the geographical location of the building in which the social agency has its office is important, many internal factors of the building must also be considered.

(*a*) *Service.* Unless the agency wishes to discourage volunteers, board members, contributors, clients, and other possible callers from coming to it, the office should be either on the first floor—so that no stairs will have to be climbed by short-winded or weary employees or callers—or convenient to fast and frequent service in well-ventilated elevators. (The elevator which brings callers to one well-known social agency, because of its apparently direct connection with the furnace room and its passage through what seems to be a hermetically sealed shaft, is sometimes called the "smell-evator"—and not unjustly either at times.)

An urbanized executive comments, "I have the impression that there are few walk-up offices where you need to discuss stair climbing as opposed to elevator service." He evidently has not been much around social agencies in our smaller cities and towns, particularly in the South. Indeed, we know intimately a community chest office in a large city which is well located geographically but is up one flight of stairs (not through choice but because of the acute shortage of office space). We know an important agency in another city which is up two long flights of stairs in the city hall (no elevators because of war and post-war shortages of materials). It is a nice office when you get to it!

Janitor service, too, must be adequate. Floors must be thoroughly and completely swept every day, the offices dusted, and the windows washed with sufficient frequency to enable the organization to retain its self-respect and its vision of the outer world.

The building should provide adequate storage facilities in its basement, or elsewhere, for surplus supplies and equipment.

The other tenants should be of a respectable character, in keeping with the dignity of the agency.

(*b*) *Rents.* The rate of rental naturally varies from city to city, and no standards can be set here. It is wise for the social agency ordinarily to pay rent which is not above the average for the community. If possible, the agency should secure quarters, even if at some sacrifice of convenience, where the impression of economy is confirmed by the known modesty of the rent. The building should be neither so magnificent as to create the impression of extravagance nor so cheap as to be shabby or provide inadequate service.

Sometimes an agency may secure special concessions in rent through taking a long lease in a highly desirable building, the owners of which have overestimated the demand for office space and thus have too many vacant offices, or else in one that is perhaps a little older yet satisfactory in terms of actual utility. Sometimes, too, owners are willing to make concessions in rent and will forego their profit and rent at actual cost because the agency is a non-profit organization.

Again, an owner may make a concession, with the thought that a social agency as a well-known institution which brings many reputable citizens to the building will provide both good publicity for the name of the building and a satisfactory clientele. This agreeable state of affairs should in theory lure more and better tenants to the building. One social agency will often attract others to a building without definite endeavor on its part to develop central officing. A resourceful executive and board of directors will not hestitate to call attention to these potential advantages when negotiating the most favorable possible terms for a lease.

(*c*) *Location in Building.* Rent should not be saved, however, at the expense of a satisfactory location within the building. The office should be sufficiently far up to escape the noise of traffic and if possible to have an unbroken view of the sky for the sake of light. The office also should not be directly in line with a smoking chimney or exposed to disturbing sounds or offensive odors of industrial or mercantile processes. It should be convenient to toilet rooms for both men and women employees, and to drinking fountains as well unless the organization provides its own cooled drinking water.

(*d*) *Daylight.* Light, both natural and artificial, should be a factor in determining the location. Unobstructed daylight is desirable. North light, because of its evenness and lack of glare, is better than any other. Although the direct rays of the sun can be lessened by either awnings or window shades, neither of these devices is quite so satisfactory as Venetian blinds.

If daylight is desired for all workers, the office should not be so deep that light will not penetrate to the farther parts of it. Daylight sufficient for writing, even on bright days, generally does not penetrate into office buildings more than 25 or 30 feet. Its penetration is partially affected by the color of the walls. Those of light color and smooth surface reflect more light and consequently provide more illumination than those of darker colors. Walls of cream or of "eye-ease green," a ceiling of pale yellow, green, or white, and light-colored woodwork provide an agreeable and effective background for the well-distributed light of day.

(*e*) *Artificial Light.* Artificial illumination must also be provided. The light should be adequate for close application to figuring and writing without eye strain.

Adequacy of light can be tested by engineers supplied by the local illuminating company. Indeed, it is a good plan to call in a representative of the electric light company when you are considering this question. The company is interested in selling as much electricity as possible. It will be glad to see that the illumination is adequate—aside from its scientific interest in providing satisfactory light.

It has generally been agreed that indirect or semi-indirect lighting fixtures are the most satisfactory. They should be so numerous and their light so directed that one's hand held at the height of a desk will cast no shadow on the floor.

Recently fluorescent lights have been highly commended and widely used. We like them. They, too, should be considered on the basis of the advice of a competent technician.

Glaring, unprotected lamps are manifestly bad. The popular shaded desk lamp generally causes an intensity of light and a reflected glare which are in painful contrast with the surrounding gloom. Desk lamps usually are less desirabble than diffused, overhead lighting.

Arrangements should be made for the frequent washing of all reflectors, bulbs, and tubes. Competent authorities state that ac-

cumulation of dust on these fixtures will reduce the available light by as much as 25 per cent.

Adequate lighting is obviously necessary. It enables the office force to work rapidly and without the tendency toward error caused by lack of proper visibility. Moreover, a social agency because of its altruistic purpose, even more than a business concern, is responsible for safeguarding its employees against possible eye troubles which result from poor lighting.

(f) Ventilation and Air Conditioning. Although, unlike light, the air cannot be seen (except in some cities which may have that degree of smokiness which Pittsburgh once made notorious), ventilation as a factor in the location of an office is practically as important as light.

Elaborate systems of artificial ventilation and air conditioning seem to be unnecessarily luxurious for most social agencies, even though they are becoming popular for stores and offices in those regions of our country where the summers are very hot and humid. A proper conditioning system does control the temperature, humidity, and cleanliness of the air and surely has many advantages. We recently considered offices in a building soon to be air-conditioned—until we were told that when the offices were thus equipped the rent would go up 30 per cent! Of course, the system if made an integral part of a new building would cost relatively less than if crammed into one whose builders had not envisaged this development. We did not think, however, that in our case the benefit would equal the cost. Still, an air-conditioned meeting room might promote attendance and length of stay at board and committee meetings in hot weather. Perhaps that situation can be met by using the air-conditioned board room of a bank or large business corporation.

Following the simple health rule of keeping windows open at top and bottom and providing inexpensive window ventilators should be sufficient ventilation measures for the average social agency.

Of course electric fans—adequate in number, location, and power —are necessary in hot weather, both for ventilation and for the "cooling" effect of moving air on perspiring skins.

Maybe all this is rationalizing and we are envious of the social agencies that do have air-conditioned offices. We think they are swell if you can have 'em! But some efficiency experts claim that air conditioning in hot climates adds 10 to 15 per cent to the summer output, and that is not to be sneezed at!

In winter the heat in the office should be regulated by a thermostat connected with the heating system. Or, if this is impossible, one person should be responsible for regulating the windows so as to maintain a temperature of approximately 68 to 70 degrees Fahrenheit. But a problem develops when a person near a window complains of the cold while one farther away is too warm. Window ventilators will help to handle that argument. A policy of interpreting to the staff, in meeting, the importance of adequate ventilation and moderate temperature will help greatly in modifying the attitude of members who are afflicted with antiquated ideas of ventilation.

(*g*) *Breezes.* The breezes which prevail in various parts of the country may also make some difference in the location of the office. For example, in Houston the prevailing winds in summer are from the southeast (over the Gulf of Mexico). A social agency might therefore choose the east side of the building, even though this means greater glare from the morning sun.

It is sometimes necessary for an agency, before deciding on a location on the top floor of a building, to investigate carefully to make sure that there is an adequate air space between the ceiling of the office and the roof of the building; otherwise the employees may be subjected to a temperature five to ten degrees higher than that on the lower floors. That difference in temperature may make all the difference between suffering and comfort, and consequently between inefficiency and efficiency.

Furthermore, there should be windows on two or more sides of the office for cross ventilation. The windows should have free access to the outer air.

(*h*) *Adequate Heat.* Conversely, adequate heat should be assured in the winter. A staff that shivers at a temperature around 60 degrees on a cold day, has to work in sweaters and overcoats, and operates office equipment with numbed fingers is no more efficient in its production than that which has to suffer from excessive heat in summer. Adequate guarantees of satisfactory heat should be provided in the lease. That guarantee should be enforced, even if it is necessary to "put the heat" on the landlord by withholding the rent.

(*i*) *Humidity.* Humidity, also, is held by medical authorities to be an important factor in the preservation of health. In some sea-level cities there is no need for artificial humidification, at least in the summer. In the winter it may be wise (ask your local heating

and ventilating engineer) to have well-filled pans of water under or on the radiators or hooked behind them; for which ingenious devices of that kind can be purchased. In this way the indoor air may be kept healthfully moist to supplement the moisture-laden currents from the outside. If such devices are used, the office boy or his functional equivalent should be given the responsibility of keeping them filled. Naturally you do not have to bother about all this if you have an air-conditioned office.

(*j*) *Rest Rooms.* The building or the social agency should provide for its women employees a rest room, clean, convenient, and quiet. It should be supplied with a couch and a clean couch cover, or a cot with sheets and pillows which are frequently changed. If space permits a separate smoking room, loafing room, or lunchroom, it is usually desirable that the rest room should not be used for these purposes but only for its specific purpose. Supervision of the rest room may be put in the hands of a committee of women employees who are held responsible for its management. Sometimes lack of space may require that the rest room "double" as a lunchroom. This, however, should be considered an emergency condition, to be corrected as soon as possible. Some buildings and some of the larger social agencies provide reading rooms or libraries for their employees' use during their lunch hours.

(*k*) *Luncheon Facilities.* Luncheon facilities for employees constitute another factor in selecting an office. Social service buildings in some cities provide lunchrooms where good food can be purchased at a reasonable cost. Some agencies with large staffs operate their own lunchrooms. People not connected with the agency or with the building are sometimes served in lunchrooms of this character, in order to increase the volume of business and thus to make possible both a lower cost of operation and a greater variety in menu.

A lunchroom has many advantages. It supplies wholesome, hot food at a low cost. This discourages employees from bringing their own cold lunches, which cannot be considered unsatisfactory. It provides a place where employees may eat their lunches and prevents the scattering of crumbs around the office. It prevents sickness, since there is no necessity for going out of the building for lunch on cold or rainy days. It makes eating together by the staff members of one or more agencies a convivial event—one that is productive of acquaintance and good fellowship and may help to develop effective working relationships. It will be convenient for

the service of coffee and cold drinks during the morning and afternoon recess periods, a practice which many agencies authorize, and by its convenience it will save time that would be lost if employees left the office for their refreshment. It may provide a good meeting place for committees.

There are disadvantages, however. A lunchroom may lose money through insufficient patronage. If not well managed, the room will cause disagreeable odors in the building and attract vermin. It may keep employees indoors when they should be out getting sunshine, fresh air, and exercise during their noon hours. It may make employees ingrowing in their acquaintance instead of encouraging varied outside contacts. Then, too, a lunchroom operated by the social agency itself may involve indirect costs which, although they are not usually computed, are nevertheless high. One such cost would be payment of rent for a space that might be used more satisfactorily by the agency for other purposes; another would be the expenditure of a disproportionate amount of time and attention on the part of the executive or staff member in charge.

An arrangement that is sometimes satisfactory is for a social agency or group of agencies to lease space for a lunchroom to an outside organization or individual who will assume full responsibility for its management and for serving good food at reasonable prices. With the incentive of adequate service as a basis for profit, this arrangement may save the agency itself both from a possible deficit in its operation and from the complaints which its employees are likely to make about the food served by the organization for which they work. The fewer activities the social agency operates in which it is likely to incur blame and complaint on the part of its employees, the better off it is from the point of view of morale.

Some social agencies provide lunchrooms in which members of the staff, either individually or in groups, may heat soup and make coffee or tea. Such arrangements, however, usually present problems of dish washing and garbage disposal. If this kind of lunchroom is provided, it should usually be managed by a group elected by the employees.

The agency might properly specify in the office manual that both rest room and lunchroom will be maintained so long as they are satisfactorily managed and used by the employees, and that abuse of these facilities will result in their withdrawal.

Certainly, if adequate and reasonably priced luncheon facilities are conveniently available to the office, it would be unwise for the

agency to provide competing service. Each shoemaker to his own last!

SIZE AND ARRANGEMENT OF THE OFFICE. In renting office space, economy should not be secured at the cost of long-time efficiency.

(*a*) *Peak Loads and Growth.* The space should be adequate not merely for the normal size of the organization, but also for times of "peak loads" when extra space is needed in special seasons or in preparation for a financial campaign or similar large-scale activity. Furthermore, the growth of the organization should be estimated in terms of past experience and present prospects, with a view to providing space which will not be outgrown before the lease expires. On the other hand, if a small space is taken, arrangements should be made with the building manager to provide additional contiguous space when necessary, through the shifting of other tenants.

(*b*) *100 Feet per Employee.* The amount of space necessary may be computed on the formula that in general from 75 to 100 square feet of working space are necessary for each clerical or stenographic employee. Those staff members with executive or professional responsibility who have to interview clients and callers may require 100 square feet or more. Still, an office ten feet square ought to be large enough for such an individual, unless he has to have an unusual amount of furniture and files or has to entertain more than two or three callers at a time. An organization which does a large amount of mechanical work, such as one that carries on extensive propaganda with elaborate duplicating and mailing equipment and large stores of printed matter or other supplies, may need more space. Nevertheless, the figures given will hold in the case of the ordinary social agency.

On the other hand, the amount of space necessary depends in part on the arrangement of the office itself. If all the workers are in one large room—a practice quite general in banks and other business offices—less space will be needed than if executives are given private offices and various departments also have rooms to themselves. Moreover, in a large office, supervision and control are more easily maintained, communication between individual employees is more direct, and better lighting, heating, and ventilation are possible than if the space is cut up into a number of rooms.

The amount of space needed also depends on whether each executive has his secretary in his office with him, or whether all the secretaries and stenographers are put together in a "stenographic pool" from which they are called when necessary. The more the

clerical force can be centralized and the less it is broken up into separate units, the less space will be needed and the more effectively can that space be used.

(*c*) *Private Offices Not Always Necessary.* Many executives and sub-executives mistakenly think they need a private office. The private office is often a concession to vanity and to the desire of its owner to increase his importance and to have his name on a door. It has been suggested that private offices sometimes take the place of deserved increases in pay. If the decision rests between these two alternatives, most agencies will find it cheaper to raise the pay than to provide private offices, which involve extra space and the additional cost of partitions. Ordinarily executives and professional staff members who do not have to hold confidential conferences with clients or citizens in general can be given space in a part of the general office set apart for their use. A general conference or committee room, to which staff members may retire if they need complete seclusion or in which conferences and meetings may be held, will eliminate the need for many of the private offices which otherwise might be considered necessary. Frequently case work agencies have small dictating rooms in which case workers can dictate in turn, according to schedule, to a stenographer or a dictating machine.

Every social agency which deals with clients must, however, have at least two special rooms—one perhaps a combined reception, information, and waiting room; the other a private room in which clients may be interviewed without interruption so that the confidential relation between interviewer and client may be maintained.

A sound method of deciding upon the number of private offices required is to count carefully the cost of the extra space and partitions required and to measure this, not against the individual's wish for a private office, but against the actual increase in the efficiency of the organization which will result if a private office is provided for him.

If a large number of private offices is necessary (although low railings will sometimes be suitable as barriers between the rank-and-file and the executive) an excellent arrangement is to have partitions that do not go all the way to the ceiling and stop a foot or so from the floor, with clear glass from desk height to the top. In this way the maximum amount of light and ventilation will be provided. Such offices usually will provide sufficient privacy for all practical purposes.

The effect of having the whole office within view of the executive

—either because there are no partitions or because they are of clear glass, so that he may see all that goes on—is often decidedly stimulating to the industry of workers and to the elimination of gossip.

(*d*) *Easy Access for Callers.* Private offices should be easy of access by callers. The most desirable arrangement for a large office, in general, is to have a reception room from which doors or hallways lead to the private offices, with the general office behind and beyond these private offices. In this more remote area all the clerical, stenographic, and mechanical processes may be carried on without interruption from callers.

QUESTIONS

1. In the case of a social agency with which you are familiar, what functions are served by the office?
2. What are the good and bad points about its location in the community?
3. If it is an office building, what are the good and bad points about that location?
4. How adequate are the arrangements for light?
5. What provision is made for ventilation and air conditioning?
6. How adequate is the heating arrangement?
7. What arrangement, if any, is there for a rest room?
8. What is done about luncheon facilities?
9. Is this office large enough to provide for peak loads and for growth?
10. How many square feet does it have per employee?
11. What arrangement does it have for private offices?
12. What facilities are there for handling callers?
13. How do you think this office's location and arrangement might be improved?

Chapter XIV

Office Equipment

ADEQUATE EQUIPMENT ESSENTIAL. The arrangement of the office should to some extent be determined by the kinds of equipment to be used. The equipment in turn will naturally depend in part on the size of the office and the amount of work to be done.

In most communities the time has passed when the public expects the social agency to get along with a minimum of equipment and to use cast-off furniture for its office. Board members and contributors as well now generally recognize that, if only for the sake of the self-respect of the staff, the office must be neatly and harmoniously furnished with some attempt at uniformity and that the furniture must be carefully adapted to the work to be done.

Proper office equipment will increase the speed and production of work, reduce personal effort, cut down the amount of professional and clerical personnel which has to be employed, promote the morale of the staff, provide accuracy and precision in office processes, reduce the cost of producing routine work, standardize mechanical processes, and free its users for creative instead of routine work. Equipment should be in harmony with the financial and community standing of the organization.

An experienced executive has said, "We tried the false economy of carrying on with cumbersome old files and inadequate desk equipment. Now that we have non-backbreaking files, proper typewriter notebook rests, comfortable chairs, and so on, we wonder why we stayed with the old as long as we did."

Every social agency should examine carefully the possible labor-saving devices and the various kinds of furniture available with a view to securing that equipment which will enable the work to be done best at the lowest possible cost and with the greatest convenience and least fatigue to the worker.

DETERMINING WHEN TO BUY EQUIPMENT. The social agency should avoid the danger of buying equipment for the mere sake of possess-

ing it. Executives are sometimes captivated by the sight of a glittering machine which roars magnificently and rapidly emits vast quantities of some product.

(*a*) *Make the Equipment Prove Itself.* Every piece of equipment should be carefully considered with a view to determining whether there is enough work to justify its purchase, whether some less expensive piece will not do the work practically as well, and whether the equipment is adequate for normal activity and has a capacity large enough for a peak load. Social agencies have been known to buy expensive equipment that took care of their ordinary needs but when the agency was unusually busy could not keep up with the demand. This situation made necessary either the purchase of an additional or larger machine of the same kind or the abandonment of the first one.

The necessity for a certain piece of equipment can be determined by computing the cost of labor of a certain amount of work—say, typing addresses on 1,000 envelopes. An addressing machine under consideration should then be tested, its rate of output measured, and the cost of that output computed in terms of the interest and depreciation on the investment, plus the labor cost and the rental value of the extra floor space required. If the machinery will pay for itself on this basis, it is probably worth purchasing.

(*b*) *Try All Possible Appliances.* The social agency should not be won too quickly by the wiles of profit-minded salesmen. When it has been found that a process can be done by machinery, or a need is felt which machinery can meet, the whole range of possible equipment should be studied. All the different machines proposed for the purpose should be tested, if possible. For example, typists' chairs can be tried out by the typists, whose reports as to the most comfortable, combined with considerations of cost, should form a basis for the decision.

(*c*) *Avoidance of Monotony.* The late W. H. Leffingwell in *The Application of Scientific Management to the Office* wrote:

> There are three conditions to be considered before the purchase of office machinery can be justified. First it must save labor, and this saving must be indicated in the pay roll, for it is of no advantage to save half of the time of an employee unless other work is immediately available to occupy the time saved. Second, it must enable the work to be done more quickly and thus give better service. Third, it must avoid monotony. There are certain operations which are extremely monotonous to high-grade clerks who part of the time have to do such work. To persons of mental capacity for doing a much higher grade of work, this is unusually

distasteful. In such cases machines may be purchased to eliminate monotony.

(*d*) *Purchase for Varied Use.* When purchasing equipment it is well to choose that which may be used for a variety of purposes. For example, in the office of a community chest, a typewriter on which there was also an adding device was tried out for making up the bills to subscribers. The executive concluded that it would be better to continue adding the amounts with the adding machine already installed and to use the typewriters on hand for entering the amounts on the bills. The adding machine the organization already had could be used for many other purposes besides, and the time saved by the adding typewriter was not enough to justify its purchase. When specialized equipment is bought, the social agency should make full use of it and should continually study its possibilities for services other than those for which it was primarily intended.

(*e*) *Standardized Equipment.* Another caution in the purchase of machinery is to install ordinarily only that which may be standardized within the agency. In the average office it is usually much better to have half a dozen typewriters of one make than one typewriter of each of six makes. After the best machine has been found for a given purpose, no further experimentation is necessary, and other pieces of the same kind may be bought without delay when needed.

One of the seminar group we have referred to suggests that the opinion of the person who will use the new machine should be sought before its purchase. That is a good idea, if the operator is competent and open-minded. On the other hand, the social agency cannot buy different kinds of typewriters to suit the whims of stenographers and typists. It is a great deal cheaper to train the operator to use a machine that has been decided upon as best for the agency than to change machines. This is particularly true at the current rate of labor turnover. It is better to get the operator for the machine than the machine for the operator.

One social agency adopted single-pedestal typewriter desks of an inexpensive make for all its typists. These desks were narrow and conserved valuable floor area, yet they provided sufficient drawer space for all ordinary needs. The top could be let down for typing with the keyboard at the proper level and the material worked comfortably near the typist's eyes. On the other hand, when the operator did clerical work, the desk could be closed to present a smooth working surface. If more desks were needed, it was unnecessary to

decide on the kind to get, since more of the model already in use could be purchased at once. (We hope those days when you can get what you want when you want it will soon return.)

(*f*) *Get Enough Equipment.* Another important consideration in the purchase of equipment is to buy enough to meet the needs of the organization. It is inefficient to buy only one large adding machine if at times two or three people must wait to use it. It might be better to purchase two or three small and inexpensive ones which could be kept on the desks of those who have to use them continually.

(*g*) *Uniform Color for Furniture.* Usually one color of furniture should be used throughout the office. The color of the woodwork may sometimes determine this. Thus walnut-finish furniture was used in the reception room of an agency because it matched the woodwork. The agency discovered, however, that light-finished oak furniture showed scratches less than did the darker finish and was more readily exchangeable if it became necessary to dispose of it at second hand. For the general office, therefore, oak furniture was purchased.

Of recent years much attention has been given to color harmony in offices. We have even read of them being done all in pearl gray. Presumably suitable colors for walls, ceiling, floor, and furniture will promote desirable mental and emotional activity in employees. You might find it worth while to consult a competent color engineer if any is available in your town.

(*h*) *Second-hand Equipment vs. New.* The social agency need not always buy new equipment. Rebuilt equipment will often fill the need perfectly well. It can usually be purchased at a cost sufficiently lower to justify its slightly shorter life. Desks seldom wear out. If the social agency could buy a sufficiently uniform lot of second-hand desks and chairs in reasonably good condition, it would be justified in the purchase. As this is being written, a year after the close of the Second World War, arrangements are being made by Federal agencies in collaboration with local chests and councils, to make many surplus items of equipment available at special prices to social agencies. Maybe when you read this there will still be some available. Better check up!

The use of reconditioned and second-hand equipment should be carefully considered, although it may be preferable to buy new equipment if it is to be in continuous use. For instance, the ordinary social agency probably would not find it economical to purchase

second-hand typewriters. The educational discount given to most agencies on request makes the price of a new typewriter sufficiently low, especially when further reduced by the trade-in value allowed for an old machine, to justify the purchase of a new one every three years. This trade-in procedure is followed by most business firms (except during periods of war-time shortage). Moreover, the purchase of new equipment, as against second-hand, is often justified because the new model may have improvements that will add greatly to the machine's efficiency.

A case in point is the dictating machine with transcriber which we have just purchased. When we began our work in Houston four years ago, in the middle of war, new equipment was off the civilian market. We purchased twenty-year-old used equipment, because even an old dictating machine is far better than none at all. Soon after the war we secured new electronic equipment, which has practically doubled our secretary's accuracy and speed in transcribing. A good secretary, too!

(*i*) *Continued Study of Equipment.* The progressive social agency board and executive will not remain content with the equipment in use. Rather, they will be continually studying magazines on office management and catalogues of office equipment, as well as visiting business equipment shows, to see what improvements and new devices have been put on the market, with the thought that by exchanging or replacing a machine or getting a new one a saving can be made that will justify the expenditure.

(*j*) *Service on Equipment.* It is self-evident that part of the task of using equipment is to keep it in good condition. If around the office there is no one (such as a mechanically minded office boy) who can do this, arrangements should be made with the sales agency of the machinery purchased to provide service each month. This service usually is low in cost, and it more than pays for itself through expert care which often prevents an actual breakdown.

Before purchasing equipment it is prudent to find out whether an adequate service department is located in the community. A social agency some years ago purchased an addressing machine which proved of little value in the long run because there was no service man nearer than a city 125 miles away. Make sure then, first, that the equipment is sturdy and simple and not likely to get out of order, and, second, that prompt and skillful repair service is available when necessary. Otherwise some important process may be held up because the machine breaks down at a critical moment.

A bank auditor has suggested that it is a good plan always to have available two pieces of a given item of equipment; if one breaks down, the other can be used. This may be wise for a bank, but it is hardly practical for a financially limited social agency.

Repairs can be prevented and the need for service held to a minimum if each employee is trained in the use and care of the equipment he is to handle. The manufacturer usually provides complete instructions. Some large agencies prepare their own manuals. An excellent example is *Know Your Typewriter,* Training Manual No. 1, issued by the Federal Security Agency in 1943. It begins with the excellent injunction, "Do not attempt to make your own repairs."

(*k*) *Selection of Equipment by Committee.* Some social agency board members and executives seem to fear that the agency will be criticized if machinery is purchased. They think that money should go into service instead of equipment. The answer, of course, is that necessary equipment, selected wisely and kept in good order, produces economy—through the actual saving of dollars for the agency's work—and efficiency, through making those dollars go farther and do better work.

A good way to avoid criticism in this matter is to organize a committee on office management. It may be made up of representatives of local business houses who are familiar with efficient methods of office management. The committee can be a tremendous help both for its competent action on office problems and for its manifest competence, which serves to disarm criticism of expenditures and internal activities.

KINDS OF EQUIPMENT. The foregoing principles for the purchase and use of office equipment are applicable to almost any social agency. Yet it is difficult to speak in detail regarding the kinds of equipment generally necessary, because the needs of agencies are so varied. Some consideration of the varieties of equipment which may be used, however, seem appropriate.

(*a*) *Reception Room Furniture.* In the reception room, reasonably comfortable arm chairs for the maximum probable number of callers at any one time should be provided, and perhaps a plain table. A bulletin board for notices regarding the work of the organization and samples of printed matter may also be useful. If the telephone operator serves also as the reception clerk, the switchboard (if the agency has one) will also have to be in this room. The board may be of the same color as the furniture, for the telephone companies usually allow a choice.

An executive of a mental hygiene clinic suggests that the reception room of an agency which has clients or patients who wait for conference or treatment should be homelike and informal. It should have books and magazines interesting and easy for the waiting persons to read. It should have furnishings much like those they are used to. In that way they may become relaxed and at their ease, so that their conferences with case worker, psychiatrist, or physician may be most effective.

(b) Desks. According to modern practice, desks throughout the office should be flat-toppers. Although steel furniture has many strong points, the wooden furniture people also are going vigorously after business with improved models. Better look over available models of both kinds.

Clerks whose work calls for no typing can use small tables. These can be inexpensive, with legs that can be unbolted so that the tables may be stored away when not in use.

Secretaries to executives may need double-pedestal typewriter desks because of both the large quantity of material which they have to keep close at hand and the great amount of work which they sometimes have to spread out on their desks. We like those secretarial desks which have shelves that disappear with the typewriter into the place where the double-depth file drawer otherwise would be. That keeps the top clear.

Typists in general, though, need only single-pedestal typewriter desks with folding tops into which the machine disappears when not in use. Typewriter stands are usually unsatisfactory for permanent workers, because as a rule they afford inadequate drawer space. Moreover, the stand is low in order to have the typewriter at a usable level. Material on which clerical work is to be done is therefore too far away from the worker's eyes.

All office furniture should be kept to the smallest convenient limit as to the number of drawers and size. If the principles of the cleared desk are followed, very few drawers will be needed. Desks should be considered in terms of the space they will occupy. Sixty-inch desks should not be purchased when fifty-inch desks will do, nor the latter when thirty-six-inch desks are sufficiently large. The sizes necessary for different operations should be carefully decided on, and each size and model set as a standard.

Much could be said in describing various kinds of desks and tables which have disappearing tops, cabinets for typewriter supplies, legs that can be lengthened or shortened, and adjustable foot

rests. Although adjustable apparatus may be highly desirable, it has not been available at a price within the reach of the average social agency. It is well to be on the alert for such equipment, but the buyer must not be beguiled into trying to secure its advantages when they are more than overbalanced by the cost. Perhaps some day this type of furniture will be standardized and its price put within the average agency's reach.

There are many possibilities in modern desks, however, for the installation of drawers of various depths and internal arrangement. *A Manual of Desk Drawer Layout*, published by the Office Planning Service Department of the Art Metal Construction Company, Jamestown, N. Y., shows fourteen excellent designs for layouts and says that endless variations are possible.

(c) Personal Desk Efficiency. The manual just mentioned contains an excellent article on "Personal Desk Efficiency."

(d) Chairs. The selection of chairs is of great importance. The social agency should take into consideration the fact that no two persons are alike in stature or posture, and for its clerical and stenographic force it should consider the purchase of any one of several excellent chairs now on the market which can be adjusted to suit the worker. "Posture" chairs pay high dividends in the satisfaction of workers, in freedom from weariness, and in increased output. Where for certain mechanical processes the operator must sit at a height greater than the average, he should be given either a high stool or a foot rest. To prevent shine on employees' clothes, some social agencies find it worth while to provide felt or sponge-rubber pads for the chairs. Other agencies buy chairs with perforated leather seats instead of solid wood. The floor covering in some offices is of such a nature that it may pay to provide chairs with casters of rubber or felt to prevent cutting or scratching the floor and to reduce noise.

(e) Filing Cabinets. Filing cabinets are necessary for social agency offices. Steel filing cabinets with ball-bearing drawer slides for ease in handling are in general use. For important records, safe cabinets may be purchased which will guarantee against destruction by fire. Filing cabinets of various heights may be obtained. Those of counter height will sometimes be convenient in a reception room. There the top of the cabinet may serve as a counter, and the records are kept in the drawers below.

It is hardly necessary to discuss wooden or steel transfer cases for storing records not currently needed, or cardboard boxes for the fil-

ing of pamphlets, booklets, clippings, and other material which does not have to be kept in the current file. Cuts or half-tones for publicity and printed matter may be kept in drawers of suitable height.

(*f*) *Card Files.* For filing cards many devices are used by social agencies. Some prefer a file with tiers of drawers, one above the other. This arrangement has the advantage of flexibility and accessibility. In another type of cabinet, large drawers pull out to considerable length, with several rows of cards running across the drawers instead of lengthwise. Tub desks of either the "upright" or "sitting" type (according to the position of the user) have their enthusiastic advocates, who say that they have distinct advantages if the clerk is constantly working with the cards. In a tub desk it is possible to place within the easy reach of one person as many as 10,000 cards. The difficulty with this arrangement is that, if more than one person has to work with these cards, one may interfere with the other.

Another popular file is in the form of a wheel. Into its periphery the file cards are fastened loosely, for speed in posting or for easy removal.

Visible card files—and there are many excellent kinds on the market—have the advantage of making their information instantly available. They are more expensive, however, than the ordinary "blind" type. The advantages to be gained by their use must be checked carefully against the extra cost.

Blind or vertical card files can be used to best advantage if they are closely indexed and are equipped with sufficient tabs, guides, and signals. In the use of card files and equipment, as in all other respects, the careful office manager will study possible uses of the simplest equipment first. He will purchase more complicated equipment only when he is sure that it will serve his need better than the simpler and cheaper devices.

(*g*) *Bookcases and Books.* Almost every social agency has a reference library of some proportions. It therefore has the problem of preserving for convenient use books, magazines, reports, proceedings, and other publications. Probably the best means is a sectional bookcase with glass doors which keep the stored material free from dust. Sections may be added as the need arises.

If a large number of books, pamphlets, and reports in what amounts to a considerable reference library are to be preserved, open sectional steel shelving may well be used instead of the more expensive glass-doored cases.

But, before the agency goes to the expense of buying a large number of books and more or less costly bookcases, the executive and

board should find out which books can be secured from the local public library and perhaps delivered by it on request. Some reference books are without doubt necessary for staff and office use. These should be kept in a central location, convenient to all users. Many other books, once read, will not be needed again. Buy for repeated use and permanence, and borrow for infrequent use and transience. Be sure that the bookcases contain only material worth keeping.

(*h*) *Safes.* In addition to bookcases, other facilities for storing supplies and records will be necessary in the average social work office. Most offices need a safe, preferably fireproof, for the keeping of money, books, and other important records. Indeed, if the organization is not housed in a fireproof building all the records and card files should be kept in fireproof cabinets. Fireproof safes and cabinets do not depreciate rapidly. The agency may be able to purchase them second-hand. It should make sure, however, that they are of first-class quality. The agency should have a written guarantee that the fireproof filling in the walls is of such a character that it will not shrink or slide with age and thus reduce the protective efficiency of the equipment.

(*i*) *Coat Racks and Lockers.* Provision is necessary for employees' hats and coats. Sometimes an improvised coat-and-hat rack may be made by fastening a shelf to the wall. Under it should be an iron pipe, about shoulder-high from the floor, connected to and held up by two upright pipes fastened to the floor with flanges. Any plumber can install such a rack, and from it coat hangers can be suspended.

An excellent facility is now available in the shape of demountable steel shelves, supported on a steel frame. Beneath the shelves is a slotted strip into which coat hangers can be hooked. This equipment can be purchased in various lengths to fit any wall space. One model is flanked by foot-square locked drawers in which employees may keep their hats and handbags.

The most desirable, but also the most expensive, plan is to provide for each employee a steel locker tall enough to keep his coat from dragging on the floor, with a space above for his hat. (Sometimes entirely satisfactory second-hand lockers can be purchased.) If kept locked, lockers prevent theft, keep clothes relatively free from dust and dirt, and give the employee a place for other possessions which may be lacking if drawer space is not provided in his desk. (Rubber overshoes do not belong in desk drawers, though we have seen them there.)

Combination locks are ordinarily not so satisfactory on lockers as

padlocks and keys, because the combination may be learned by other persons and the lock picked and because the employee sometimes forgets the combination. A good procedure is to furnish each employee with a padlock and key in return for a deposit which covers their value. The deposit can be refunded when the employee leaves the organization and returns the padlock and key. This scheme helps to guard against the careless loss of the locks and keys.

(*j*) *Storage Cabinets and Shelving.* Steel cabinets with doors and adjustable shelves may be used for the storage of stock. Cabinets may not be necessary if a separate room can be given over to this purpose. It is a good plan in the latter case to buy open sectional steel shelving, in which the distance between shelves is adjustable according to the height of the various articles to be stored. This shelving is not much more expensive than wood at first cost, has practically no depreciation, may be taken down and set up in new situations much less expensively than wooden shelving, and is so simple to mount and demount that almost any office boy can do it. The storage space should be sufficient to make unnecessary the keeping of any supplies on top of safes, file cabinets, or other equipment.

Open shelving is not practical in the general office. It is exceedingly difficult to keep the shelved articles always neat, clean, and in good order. For the sake of the effect on the employees, supplies which must be kept in the general office should be put in cabinets. These contribute to the appearance of the office and keep out dust and dirt. They will also, if locked, prevent articles from being taken from the shelves without the knowledge of the one responsible for issuing and checking supplies. Supplies should be as carefully guarded and their issuance as carefully recorded as money. This matter will be discussed in a later chapter.

(*k*) *Dictating Machines.* Perhaps the most frequent operation in the social agency office is the dictation and writing of correspondence and records. Although in many of these offices correspondence is still handled by dictation to a stenographer and case records are sometimes typed by the case worker, modern practice does not approve these methods. Obviously the writing of letters and records in longhand or on the typewriter by the person responsible for them is highly inefficient, except in the very smallest organizations of the one-man or one-woman type.

Practical experience indicates that for all correspondence and records almost any social agency office will find the use of dictating and transcribing machines of standard make far more economical and

convenient than dictation to stenographers. In most offices the dictating machine will pay for itself many times over in a relatively short period of time. A further advantage is that the dictating machine is immediately available to the dictator. He can dictate any memoranda or ideas which occur to him without waiting for his secretary—before hours, after hours and at noon hour, on Sundays or holidays. If he has to travel part of the time, he can arrange with one of the dictating machine companies for the loan of a machine so that he can dictate his correspondence on the train or in another city. Then he can have the material transcribed by his own secretary or else by the dictating machine company's operator at a low cost.

The dictating machine makes possible more effective dictation, since the dictator does not feel that he is keeping a secretary waiting while he composes his thoughts. Moreover, the dictated material, if there is a large amount, can be distributed among two or more transcribers. In this way rush work can be handled much more rapidly than can dictation from notes, which usually can be transcribed only by the stenographer who took them. The flow of work can thus be equalized. Furthermore, if operators find the work monotonous, two may alternate, half a day apiece, at transcription and at other work.

The advantages of using a dictating machine are manifold and well demonstrated. Dictation to a machine is quite as flexible as to a stenographer; words can be corrected, extra carbon copies and rush orders indicated, and the length of the letter shown for appropriate spacing on the letterhead.

In addition, two or more people may use one dictating machine on a definite schedule, and one operator can take all the cylinders for transcription. On the other hand, dictators in various parts of the office or in branch offices may use their own machines. Then all these cylinders may be collected and delivered to a central department for transcription. There one operator with one transcribing machine may perhaps handle all of them. One cylinder-shaving machine for clearing the wax cylinders is sufficient for almost any number of dictating machines.

Maybe the agency should have one stenographer available to take notes on speeches, take down important and complex resolutions in a meeting, or handle a letter for an officer of the agency. The dictating machine is so flexible, however, that the stenographic skill of the secretary should be little used.

The advantages of the dictating machine are so clear that they

should not be qualified by the unwillingness of executives, staff members, or stenographers to use the machine. Anyone can learn to dictate to the machine. Any intelligent typist or stenographer can learn to transcribe. If the social agency has enough use for the equipment, say half an hour or more a day, it should be purchased. Then its use should be required just as is that of any other standard office procedure.

First, it is wise to determine whether there is enough dictation to justify the purchase of one or more machines. Second, only as many machines should be bought as are necessary, with perhaps two or more persons sharing them on a scheduled basis. Third, it should be understood that no correspondence or records are to be handled by stenographic dictation except in an emergency.

During and since the Second World War great improvements have been made in the sensitivity of dictating machines, through the development of electronic recording devices. If desired, the apparatus can be hooked up to record conferences and small meetings or telephone conversations. If a phone dialogue is to be recorded, by all means the party at the other end of the conversation should be notified that all he says will be transcribed. Secret recording of his words would smack too much of the unsavory methods of the infamous Gestapo.

The executive of a psychiatric clinic suggests that a sensitive recording machine may be used to record a patient's own words in a psychiatric interview. That would save the psychiatrist's time in dictation of a case record.

As this is being written, advertisements of dictating machines which do their recording on flat discs or on strips of wire are appearing in the business magazines. These devices as they become available may well be worth investigating. Their advantages, if any, however, would merely strengthen the arguments given above for the use of machines for dictation and transcription.

(*k*) *Typewriters.* Among office machines, of course, the typewriter is the old stand-by and is probably more generally used than any other item of office equipment. Several standard makes of typewriters will give satisfactory service for the three-year period of use which has already been mentioned.

The agency which intends to purchase typewriters should try out carefully, for its particular kind of work, the standard makes available. It should choose the one which gives the greatest speed, the best alignment, the most attractive work, the least fatigue to the

operator, and the greatest durability. These qualities should be combined with facility in special processes, such, for example, as the handling of cards in a social service exchange or the cutting of mimeograph stencils for an organization which has a great deal of publicity work. Sometimes the slightly higher cost of a noiseless typewriter may be justified—when the secretary shares the office of an executive who would be disturbed by the ordinary typewriter, or when in the reception room the ordinary machine would distract the telephone operator or be disturbing to callers.

After the most suitable kind of typewriter has been selected, the organization should standardize on it, purchasing other kinds only for special needs. For example, the standard typewriter in an office might be of one make, but another kind might be found better for cutting stencils. One machine of the second variety might therefore be purchased if there was enough stencil cutting to justify the special equipment.

Our secretary was hell-bent on our purchasing an electric typewriter. She had been allured by the seductive advertising which claims greater output, more carbon copies, and less fatigue for the operator, but she withdrew her proposal when she found how much the machine costs. Anyway, she does so many other things for us that she does not type more than half her time.

(*m*) *Aids for Typists.* Certain aids to typing efficiency can be purchased. A copy holder can be used in manuscript copying, tabulating, or statistical work. It will increase the speed considerably and greatly decrease the number of errors.

For secretaries, slantwise trays that can be put in a desk drawer for the different kinds of letterheads, envelopes, and carbon paper will add to the working speed and convenience. (A first-class desk would come so equipped.)

Manufacturers of special cards and forms offer devices that greatly facilitate the typing of such forms. An arrangement which several organizations have found saves time in typing is to have all small forms of which many are to be typed in succession printed in strips as long as the paper stock from which they are made will allow. These strips should not be so long that they will hang over the end of the desk and fall off because of their own weight. For instance, bills that must be made out each month may be printed in strips of six or eight and run through the typewriter or the addressing machine without separate insertion. Master cards for a permanent list of subscribers or members may similarly be printed in strips sepa-

rated by perforations and torn apart after typing. For memoranda to go in tickler files, plain strips of paper—either in series of a definite number, such as six, or in rolls on holders which may be fastened to the typewriter—may be purchased. Various fanfold arrangements of strips of forms interleaved with carbon paper are available. These afford a great saving of time in inserting carbon paper and in typing. In ordering strip forms from the printer, make sure that at the bottom there is a little unprinted strip, an inch or an inch and a half in length, which will hold the strip securely in the typewriter for typing at the bottom of the last form.

(*n*) *Duplicating Devices.* The typewriter is only one of many instruments for the mechanical recording of communications. Numerous duplicating machines are available, each of which seems to fill its purpose admirably.

Our ditto machine, for example, will make excellent copies up to 200 in number. Still more copies can be produced by making an original copy with ditto carbon paper. Inks of different colors can be used. This machine employs what is called a gelatin transfer process.

For a larger number of copies than the ditto machine can produce, and for a clearer impression, the mimeograph is widely used. This utilizes a wax stencil sheet in which a typewriter or a stylus cuts the desired impression. The stencil then is placed on a roller, and through it ink is squeezed on sheets of paper. A good mimeograph stencil will imprint thousands of copies.

Both the ditto machine and the mimeograph (the latter by the use of the mimeoscope or lighted table) will reproduce drawings, charts, or other illustrative material, in addition to typed matter.

Another duplicating machine, the multigraph, prints through an inked ribbon. The advantage of this machine is that it turns out work that is very much like typewriting. Excellent filling in of names, addresses, and salutations can be done on these letters, either by skilled typists using carefully matched ribbons on their machines or by other office workers using special address plates made with equipment that can now be obtained from the manufacturer. Furthermore, the multigraph can be supplied with printer's type and cuts and an inked roller. Thus transformed, the multigraph at low cost will produce printed forms, leaflets, pamphlets, and other relatively simple printed matter in the agency's own office. Considerable advantages in economy and speed of printing can be gained by the

use of this equipment if the agency has enough of such work to justify the cost of the machine.

In addition to these old stand-bys for the duplication of typed or printed matter, several other devices have been developed recently. These reproduce through photographic or chemical processes. One of them, the multilith, is widely used in large social agencies (and in some small ones) for a variety of work which once would have required a printer.

Many of these devices will bear study. Still, the social agency should beware of elaborate and costly equipment unless a fairly continuous volume of work will justify its use. Further, it is wise to investigate the question of the amount of skill necessary for operation and what the cost will be to maintain a trained operator.

No equipment of this nature should be purchased until the organization has carefully compared the cost of preparation of such material outside the office—either by letter and duplicating companies or by regular printers—against the cost of interest on the equipment, depreciation, repairs, service, and the labor required to operate it, plus the value of the space it will occupy, especially when space is at a premium in an already crowded office. It is often better to have duplicating and printing done outside by firms equipped to handle it than to attempt it in the agency office with relatively unskilled workers and the possibility of disrupting normal office processes.

The social agency should also consult the sales representatives of the manufacturers of these various mechanical devices to learn what savings can be made through their use. For example, a good salesman of the ditto machine will be able to show how some of the agency's forms can be printed in ditto ink and the figures typed on these forms through use of a ditto ribbon or carbon, and the form and the typing reproduced at one time. Such a plan is followed by some community chests for the copying of the budgets of the member organizations and for the preparation of reports of campaign statistics to be sent to campaign workers. The ditto machine is highly flexible and useful where a limited number of copies are needed. The social agency should examine each process which requires duplication with a view to finding out whether it can be handled better and less expensively by one of the modern methods. (Our wife's cousin has hopefully figured out how much we could save by purchase of a multilith. Unhappily, our harassed office manager has not been able

to decide how she would fit this into the already complicated mechanical procedures of the office, or where she would store the vast quantities of supplies which the machine would so rapidly emit. Still, perhaps this is only an academic question. Wife's cousin said we might be able to get the machine nine months to a year from now. Maybe something better and cheaper will turn up by then.)

Again, the equipment should be complete. The agency which installs a mimeograph, multigraph, or multilith will find it worth while to consider the purchase of additional equipment to make the use of the machinery more effective. For example, an electric motor will speed up the mimeograph so that one person instead of two can operate it and a long run can be made without wearying the operator. A relatively inexpensive slip-sheet device will further cut down labor and prevent the smearing of ink when duplication is done on non-absorbent stock such as bond paper. An automatic counter will also be useful. An automatic feed will enable the operator to speed up the machine and give it only partial attention while doing other work. Get the machine as complete as possible at the time of purchase for the sake of making all possible savings from the beginning. Moreover, it is usually easier to get a board of directors to agree in the beginning to the purchase of a complete piece of equipment than it is later. If additional devices are proposed afterwards, the board may object that they should have been thought of when the machine was purchased. Quite right, too!

(*o*) *Addressing Machines.* Often a necessary complement to the duplication of material is addressing the result for mailing. Most organizations can afford some sort of addressing equipment for all lists that are used repeatedly. This equipment may be very simple for the agency that has only a few committees or a small membership. On the other hand the apparatus may be quite elaborate for the agency whose mailing lists are large and frequently used.

Mechanical addressing equipment has the advantage of saving time and labor and of making it possible to get out mail on short notice, once the original material is correct (and provided it does not get mixed up in the file drawers).

There are several kinds of addressing equipment. One type uses a fiber stencil much like that of the mimeograph in principle. This equipment is relatively inexpensive to purchase and to operate because the stencils can be made on a typewriter. In addition, the stencils themselves are cheap. Such a machine is entirely satisfactory for

addressing circulars and other printed matter where the appearance is not important.

On the other hand, if the material to be mailed has to give the impression of typewriting, nothing will adequately take the place of the addressing machines which print from embossed plates through a ribbon.

All these addressing machine systems make provision for tabs on the plates, or notches or holes in the stencil frames, to indicate various classifications; they also provide selectors which will address from some plates and skip others. Then, too, there is space on the plates or stencils on which information of various kinds can be written—as, for example, the date and amount of payment received. Plates or stencils may often take the place of other card files and lists. If of suitable height and spacing, plates may be used instead of ledger cards as the basis of an accounting or membership record. They can be used for still other purposes in an office—filling out the payroll, making out checks, addressing labels, and so on.

Just ask the salesman. He will be glad to think up innumerable uses for his equipment and will be delighted to make an efficiency plan for all your office procedures (possibly with his equipment the essential factor in the system). No charge for the plan, either!

(p) Intercommunicating Devices and Telephones. In addition to the kinds of equipment mentioned, some system of intercommunication between the executive members of the staff and others with whom quick contact is desirable may be necessary for a large social agency. For the smaller organizations, however, an elaborate system will not be required.

Nowhere does efficiency in the ludicrous sense seem more overdone than in some of our highly intricate systems of internal communication. They save no time and pile up expense for installation and for messengers and operators. The agency should learn how much intercommunication equipment is thought necessary by the engineer-salesman and then probably install somewhat less than he recommends.

On the other hand, every executive and every other person in the organization who has any considerable number of contacts with people outside the office should have a telephone. It is better to install two telephones for people at contiguous desks who make considerable use of them than to have both persons share one instrument, with attendant delay to themselves and to others. Conversely, it is

equally wasteful to have two telephones where one will be adequate. Telephone service operated through a switchboard with an operator (who in a smaller agency may also serve as the reception clerk, file clerk, and newspaper clipper) may save the necessity of an elaborate intercommunicating telephone or loud speaker system.

In some organizations where telephones are actively used, a duplicate private branch exchange system in which numbers are automatically called may be desirable. Again, a separate annunciator system by which the executive may have instant communication with distant parts of his office may be practical.

The executive may need a buzzer for a messenger or his secretary, but he should hardly use it to summon his responsible executive assistants. It is more in keeping with their responsibility and dignity either to call them by telephone or to go to them for conference. Sub-executives also may need buzzers to summon messengers or their own secretaries. A telephone extension for the secretary and a buzzer to indicate when the executive needs to answer the telephone, and vice versa, may take the place of extra main telephone lines. Sometimes not even a switchboard is needed; instead, a two-or-three-way switch equipped with a buzzer can be used to connect the person desired with the line on which he is being called.

It is a wise procedure to consult the local telephone company and to follow its technical advice. Do not be too much beguiled by the fellows who want to sell you separate systems. Remember, you can only carry on one conversation at a time no matter how many intercommunicators demand your attention. If you stick to the telephone system, only one can get to you at a time. Elsewhere may lie insanity.

If the office has a telephone switchboard, the operator should be instructed to give certain executive members of the staff definite lines at night, on Sundays, and on holidays, so that those numbers may be used if these functionaries are to be reachable at such times. It may sometimes be desirable to have the night numbers listed in the telephone book under the regular number of the organization. Again, it may be well to list the executive's home telephone number as an emergency number for the organization, so that he can be reached out of office hours. In turn, it helps to remove a source of domestic irritation, if the executive's name is listed in the directory with his office telephone number, so that absent-minded people who can remember his name but not that of the organization can reach him at the office without calling his home first to get the number. Further, it may help those who wish to telephone the agency to have

it listed in more than one way in the telephone book—as: "Midtown Visiting Nurse Association" and "Visiting Nurse Association, Midtown."

(*q*) *The Telephone and Its Operation.* The telephone operator is one of the major creators of public opinion for the social agency. She is usually the chief personal contact between the agency and the public. She is comparable to the "intake" secretary who screens all applicants for treatment or service.

The operator should be carefully selected for her courtesy, agreeableness, precision, reliability, promptness, discretion, pleasantness of voice, clarity of enunciation, and politeness of manner. Even though she "doubles" in reception, filing, and typing, she should, if possible, be a graduate of the telephone company's training school and preferably have some experience in telephone exchanges. If she is chosen from the staff, she should be sent to one of the training schools for private branch exchance operators which most telephone companies operate. She should be trained to record all long-distance calls made in the agency. A separate slip should be made for each and filed with the accounting department so that it can be charged to the proper individual or department. The operator should be quick in making connections and in getting numbers. She should be responsible for handling outside calls for at least the more important executives in the organization. She should know enough about the agency's work to refer the inquirer to the individual who can supply requested information. She should not, however, attempt to answer inquiries about agency policies and practices herself—if she is inadequately informed she may cause the agency a great deal of trouble. The desire to please should be tempered with discretion—in this, as in other respects.

The telephone operator in many social agencies also serves as reception clerk. In this capacity, too, courtesy and helpfulness are important. Whether the reception clerk doubles as telephone operator or not, she should not ordinarily give out information regarding the agency's operation but should refer such requests to a designated executive. One shudders at the recollection of the half truths that have been lisped to inquirers by a sweet reception clerk and have come thundering back to the executive for painful correction. Under such circumstances one might easily wish that the amiable clerk were beautiful but *dumb!*

In many organizations the telephone and reception clerk may also, in her spare time, take care of the files and the clipping of news-

papers and do typing, checking, or other routine work which does not need to be done at any particular time. These duties should not be of such a nature as to divert her from her fundamental work as telephone operator. On the other hand, she should have enough casual work to keep her fully occupied, if for no other reason than that an apparently idle clerk creates a bad impression on a public which more or less cheerfully gives its dollars to the social agency or is taxed for its support.

(Our operator-receptionist has been a changed woman ever since she chanced to read the above while assembling for the seminar the dittoed copies of the first draft of this revised edition. She said to our secretary, "Do you suppose he means me?")

(*r*) *Visible Index of Employees In and Out.* A useful piece of office equipment is an index of the presence of executive and professional employees, as kept by the telephone operator or reception clerk. The index has an indicator which shows whether each person is in or out of the office and, if out, when he will return. (Our operator read this, too, and made an indicator out of cardboard with the help of Countess, our machine operators' mechanical genius. Works fine, too!)

A blackboard appropriately lettered and ruled will serve the same purpose. Volunteer workers who give considerable time to the agency may be listed as well.

A standard office procedure should be for every executive or subexecutive who is going out of the office on business to tell the reception clerk, for the information of those who may wish to get in touch with him, where he is going, how he can be reached, and when he will return. The receptionist should write down this information on a pad, lest she forget or fail to report these data to a relief operator.

(*s*) *Drinking Fountains.* The organization should supply drinking fountains (unless they are already a part of the building equipment). If it is not convenient or practical to connect an electrically cooled drinking fountain, with supply and discharge pipes, its place may be taken by a water bottle that may be filled in the washroom by the janitor or a male member of the clerical force. In addition there should be a metal stand for the bottle, with an ice chamber to be filled by the janitor (if any). Close at hand should be paper cups in a container on the wall and a waste basket into which to drop the used cups. The fountain, whether automatic or man-serviced,

should be placed in the hallway by the door to the general office or in some other convenient location which can be reached with a minimum of walking.

(*t*) *Floor Coverings.* Another important item of furnishing is the floor covering. Rugs may be necessary for the more important executive offices where the floor boards need to be covered and where important callers are received. Personally we are against office rugs. For social agencies they seem a form of ornamental supererogation. Plain board floors scrubbed, shellacked, and waxed make an excellent surface. Concrete floors, because they are hard and cold, are undesirable and should be covered with battleship linoleum or composition tile. Old wooden floors with wide cracks between the boards can be masked in the same way. Linoleum or composition floors should be waxed and varnished when they commence to show wear. A good floor should be attractive in color and texture; tough and durable; not seriously affected by spilled ink; smooth, so that equipment rolled over it will not catch and tip over; easily swept and washed; and, in case it becomes worn in spots, capable of being easily repaired by putting in new pieces of material.

(*u*) *Various Kinds of Useful Equipment.* It seems hardly necessary to go into detail regarding other kinds of equipment which a social agency office may need. Yet, a checking of such possible items may be an interesting exercise:

A posting machine for recording payments on subscriptions or memberships.

A slide rule for calculating percentages or, if many are to be figured, a calculating machine.

An adding machine. (Try out the various kinds of adding machines to make sure that you get the one best adapted to your needs. Some adding machines require punching every key to give a figure, so that $10,000 would require the punching of five dollar keys and of two keys for the cents. Other machines require only the punching of one key for the first digit of the $10,000.00 figure; the other ciphers register automatically. The kind of machine to be purchased will depend on whether the organization's accounts deal largely in even figures, in which case the latter machine might be chosen. If, however, the accounts are largely of odd numbers, such for example as $45.53, the first machine might be advisable.)

Letter-stamping and sealing machines which count the number of stamps; or—

More elaborate machines which will either seal and stamp letters in one operation or print a permit number on the envelope and register the number of letters while sealing them.

Folding machines, useful when large quantities of letters or circulars are frequently mailed.

Pencil sharpeners (which will not be necessary if mechanical pencils are used).

Letter scales (both to save postage on letters that are lighter than they appear to be and to prevent the recipients from suffering either a delay or a charge for excess postage if the mail clerk guessed the weight too light).

Wire baskets or wooden trays for staff members who cannot be persuaded to keep their incoming and outgoing mail in their shallow desk drawers.

City directories.

Social service directories.

The Social Work Year Book.

(Modesty forbids that we mention the present *Handbook for Social Agency Administration,* but its 1931 version, *Social Work Administration* we have happily observed in agreeable proximity to many health and welfare administrators.)

Business directories, such as the Red Book or Blue Book printed in many cities.

Electric clocks.

A visible index of telephone numbers frequently called, for the telephone operator.

Stenographic notebook holders if dictating machines are not used.

Ball-bearing, sliding check sorters for alphabetizing checks and cards quickly.

Letter-sorting racks.

"Rubber fingers" for ease in sorting cards.

Sticks or bones for aid in folding circulars.

Calendars in sight of all workers (preferably, for the sake of the self-respect of the social agency, not the familiar advertising calendars but calendars free from advertising which can be bought).

Linoleum tops and strips for desks which must not be scratched by steel drawers of cards on which the desk's occupant is working.

Trays or stands (on wheels) on which addressing machine plates or other heavy articles can be moved from one part of the office to another.

Costumers for the outer garments of guests and users of private offices.

Shears for those who clip newspapers or work up forms for office use or for the printer.

Paste or rubber cement.

Staplers, for binding together the pages of documents.

Wire clips of several capacities (you may think this is funny, unless you have tried to fasten 25 pages together with a clip meant for two or three pages).

Ash trays for the use of callers at executive and professional desks and in the reception room.

Rubber bands of various sizes.

Rulers (measured off in inches and also to fit typewritten spacing for the preparation of forms which require typed fill-in).

Blotters (not large elaborate desk blotter pads, which represent an unnecessary expense, collect dirt, fray around the edges, and interfere with the principle of the clear desk).

No fancy desk sets (but fountain pen stands to keep the pen at attention may be useful).

Folding chairs, for meetings larger than those for which the normal number of chairs is sufficient.

You may think this list is comical for being so detailed. As a matter of fact, it is an actual, though somewhat abbreviated, record of the things we found in a large social agency office a few years ago. We would probably find more now.

For further suggestions on possible equipment see the advertising pages of such a magazine as *American Business* or drop in at your local office supply house. You will discover many items not on the list above—and a lot of them worth considering for your office, too!

(*v*) *Equipment for the Wash Room.* The wash room should have a mirror, but no brush or comb (use your own). Towels (paper preferred) and soap should be furnished by the building, if the agency is in rented space. Some institutions have electric machines which dry with a strong blast of hot air, thus dispensing with towels.

Non-Essentials. On the fringe of the field of equipment—the frosting on the cake of office necessity, as it were—might be found certain items of furniture which add to the appearance of an office and are supplied for aesthetic and inspirational purposes rather than utility.

Thus a rug may not actually be necessary for the reception room,

yet it may add to the appearance of cheerfulness and hominess and thus be worth while. The seminar already referred to suggests linoleum rugs rather than the usual fabric kind. O.K. if you like 'em!

Framed pictures of persons who typify the agency's service, posters, or cartoons from financial or membership campaigns may contribute to the historical and picturesque value of the reception room. So much cannot be said of photographs of unnamed former presidents of the organization—or of banquets of bygone days in which no one can remember the names of those who sat so solemnly facing the flashlight. If such photographs are necessary, it may be wise to have frames made with removable backs so that new photographs can occasionally be put in to record the more recent personal history of the organization. Some agencies have the photographs of their presidents and others who have rendered distinguished service framed uniformly, autographed, and put in a sort of genial "rogues" gallery in the reception room, the conference room, or the executive's office. To be represented in this gallery may be a form of distinction gratifying to the personalities thus displayed.

Flowers from the gardens of staff members may be used to decorate the reception room. Flowering plants or pots of ivy (but not potted aspidistra) also add to the cheerfulness of the place.

Curtains or draperies may sometimes be used with satisfactory effect in the reception room. They hardly belong, though, in a clerical or accounting office, which should be regarded as a workshop.

Individual executives may choose embellishments for their own offices according to their hobbies and artistic enthusiasms. One able executive's office we have seen was decorated with busts of Plato and Aristotle, who presumably he thought were early social workers. Another executive's office was charmingly decorated with color etchings. Nor need the general offices of the organization be entirely bare. A large map of the city may be decorative and also if divided into census tracts serve as a basis for statistical analysis or for the geographical distribution of cards for clients, members, or givers. Posters may be framed and hung in the spaces between windows. Large colored prints of subjects appropriate to the agency may also add to the life and cheerfulness of the room.

We have not yet heard of a radio or "industrial music" being installed in a social agency office and used continually. Lively tunes over the radio might help in speeding up some office processes, particularly in the latter part of the day. Business offices, factories, banks, department stores, and other establishments are making steadily increasing use of "wired music," and the results are appar-

ently gratifying both to user and to vendor. Perhaps social agencies will find similar values in the device. During the times of large-scale application for relief during the Great Depression we saw some crowded public assistance offices in which soothing music might have had a very beneficial effect.

CARE OF THE OFFICE. Certainly the whole office should be kept neat at all times. There is no excuse whatever for scraps of paper on the floor, for boxes of supplies on the tops of safes and file cabinets, or for any other kind of disorder. The appearance of the office has an important effect on the staff, which works more cheerfully and in a more orderly way in a neat and attractive office than in one that is ugly and sloppy. Good appearance in a room also affects callers favorably.

ARRANGEMENT OF EQUIPMENT. An important factor in the neatness of the office and in the effective use of equipment is the arrangement of that equipment so as to save the steps of workers, to allow the work to flow evenly through the office, and to facilitate access to those pieces of equipment which are frequently used.

When you are arranging a new office it is especially important to plan the location of all equipment. At that time the electrical outlets necessary for the operation of machinery can be placed in relation to the machines which are to be connected with them. Electric cords running along the floor to some distant socket or dangling from the ceiling to some piece of machinery are unsightly, collect dirt, and may cause fire. They also present the possibility of an interruption of work through the breaking of the connections. Conduits and openings should be conveniently placed, and an ample number should be supplied for possible future use.

The equipment, if possible, should be so arranged that the work flows from one end of the office to the other. The material to be handled should come in, let us say, at the front of the office as dictated material, pledges, membership cards, payments, and the like and go out at the other end in the shape of letters ready for mailing, receipts, and so forth. As far as possible, similar operations should be grouped together so that workers will not have to go long distances for conferences or for passing along material that requires a series of operations by different persons. Less important subsidiary operations should be grouped around the important ones.

If some of the operations are noisy, such as the making of addressing machine plates or the running of a duplicating machine, the equipment should be put in a room by itself. In a very large office, however, the noisy operations may more or less merge in a hum so

as not to be seriously distracting. If the noise is too objectionable and the organization can spend as much money as it wants to, the installation of soundproof tiles on ceilings and walls will greatly reduce the noise. It is hardly to be thought, however, that most social agencies either will be so large and clangorous as to find such measures necessary for theoretical efficiency or will have such ample funds available. Noise can be reduced to some extent by using soft platens on typewriters, putting rubber feet or felt pads under the typewriter legs, oiling and adjusting machinery so as to reduce its noise to a minimum, and putting sound-absorbing half booths around noisy machines. We have never seen a social agency office as noisy as the average newspaper editorial office, where vast amounts of creative work are done in the midst of confusion. Noise is less important than some people think, if those who have to listen to it will accept it as inevitable and make the best of it. As a matter of fact, the ordinarily noisy office by its very tumult will make unnecessary some of the partitions that are often requested. The noise itself, blended into an all-pervading hum, will give a form of privacy for face-to-face conversations.

For uniformity's sake, all employees as far as possible should face in one direction. The light should come if practicable over the left shoulder or from the back. Workers preferably should face away from any door through which callers may enter and distract their attention.

Sufficient space should be left between rows of desks—probably at least four feet from one desk to the one behind it—to allow employees to pass easily back and forth. Instead of putting employees in long rows, it is better if possible to place their desks in pairs with an aisle at least three feet wide on either side, so that each can get out without interfering with the other. One of the filing equipment companies has recommended that at least five feet be allowed in front of each filing cabinet.

The arrangement of office equipment will thus be seen to be a necessary concomitant to its selection, and careful attention to both will provide a suitable mechanical background for the operation of a social agency.

QUESTIONS

1. In some typical social agency you know, how is a distinction made as to what equipment is to be purchased and when this purchase is to be made?

2. What reasons may be given for the purchase of the various items of equipment which this agency uses?

3. What does this agency do about standardizing equipment?

4. What items of equipment has it made standard for the organization?

5. Has it adopted any policy on the color of its equipment and furniture?

6. Is the equipment adequate to meet the needs of the organization?

7. What is its policy in purchasing new as against second-hand equipment?

8. What arrangement has it made for service on the equipment?

9. How is the equipment selected—by an individual or by a committee?

10. List the kinds of equipment which this agency uses.

11. What kind of desks does it use?

12. What kinds of chairs?

13. What kinds of filing cabinets?

14. What kinds of bookcases?

15. What kind of material goes into those bookcases?

16. What arrangements, if any, are made for borrowing or renting equipment in times of unusually heavy work?

17. What facilities has the agency for protecting its records?

18. What facilities does it use for taking care of the garments of its employees?

19. What arrangements are there for storage of supplies?

20. How is dictation handled?

21. What typewriters are used, and why?

22. What duplicating devices, and why?

23. What addressing equipment, and why?

24. What facilities are there for drinking water?

25. What kind of floor is there, and how is it covered?

26. What principles are followed in the purchase and use of other kinds of equipment and supplies?

27. How well is the office kept in regard to neatness, cleanliness, and so on?

28. What principles have been followed in the arrangement of the equipment?

29. How do you think the procedure of this office in these various respects might be improved?

Chapter XV

The Employment of a Staff

SOUND PERSONNEL PRACTICE FUNDAMENTAL TO EFFICIENCY. All of the foregoing material considerations will amount to nothing unless the staff is carefully selected, is happy with its pay, its hours, and its conditions of work, and is animated by respect for its directors and executive and by loyalty to the principles of the agency. The personnel practices of the organization are those procedures which determine, as it were, the mental and emotional background of the agency's work, as distinguished from the physical background. Personnel practices must be sound in execution as well as in principle if the organization is to do its work well.

But a little warning is necessary here. Inasmuch as the present book is written from the point of view of applying business methods to social work, this statement of personnel practice will relate more to the clerical, stenographic, and accounting staffs as the business employees of the organization than to the professional staff. Much of what is said will in all certainty fit the professional workers as well. Still, the procedures outlined here are considered primarily from the point of view of the executive's relations to his direct administrative assistants and of his and their relationship to the employees who carry on the functions of the agency. Professional practices vary from social agency to social agency according to the special services rendered, but business procedure seems fairly standard in all fields of social work.

EFFECTIVE EMPLOYMENT METHODS ESSENTIAL. Before an organization can apply any principles of personnel administration, there must be employees on whom to practice them. Indeed, effective employment is itself a creator of morale. It may therefore be considered a basic personnel practice. Beyond a doubt, to secure competent employees is one of the greatest problems of the social agency, both from its own point of view and from that of the employee. If he

is not well chosen and thoroughly suited to the job he is to fill, he may cost the organization great loss through inadequate treatment of clients, patients, or other constituents of the organization; through loss of public good will; through disaffection of other members of the staff; through financial loss due to unnecessary expenditure, to waste of material, to damage of equipment, or to the inability of the organization to collect funds it otherwise might have secured from members or contributors; or through ineffective co-operation between the employee's own agency and others. An indirect loss caused by ineffective selection of employees is that of time and effort spent in training the ill-chosen employee to do properly the work which he should have been able to handle adequately in the beginning. Still greater is the loss if the round peg has to be plucked from the square hole (in other words, has to be "fired"). Thereupon all this task of employment and training has to be repeated—with someone else who might better have been employed in the first place. Moreover, the "firee," in his unsatisfactory period of service, may have built up loyalties to himself on the part of uncritical board members, staff members, volunteers, and constituents or members which will bring ill will to the "hard-hearted" executive. Better do your hiring right in the first place!

On the other hand, from the worker's point of view, the organization has a responsibility to employ carefully and wisely. The job presumably is his only means of livelihood. He may have left another reasonably good position to take the new one and thereby lost the chance of experience, advancement, and professional reputation he might have attained had he stayed on his old job or taken some other new one. If he is not able to make good with the organization, he loses time in vocational advancement. Furthermore, through failure to do the work well he may lose prestige, become discouraged, and consequently be less well fitted for his next job. If he is discharged or leaves precipitately he may suffer an interval of unemployment which will entail direct economic loss, in addition to the possibility that he will be unable to secure another job which will be as good as the one he had left.

The social agency therefore must develop a sound employment policy and apply it effectively. Policy and practice must give the worker every chance to make good, must help him to adjust to other jobs within the organization if the one for which he is employed does not give him full scope for his best work, and must allow his discharge only as a last resort.

POSITION SPECIFICATIONS. As a preliminary to effective employment, the social agency should make for each professional and non-professional job a position specification (or job analysis). This is a list of the requirements in personality, education, training, experience, and skill desirable for competent performance. In clerical work these specifications will include the kinds of machines which the operator should be able to run skillfully, the special kinds of manual dexterity required, the rate of speed necessary, and so on. Requirements of physical health should be included if the work is of an arduous nature—such as that of a visiting nurse who must climb up and down stairs while carrying a heavy bag of supplies and equipment—or if the job involves fairly severe and continuous physical exertion, as in the case of the operation of some office machines. Every position in the organization, as a matter of fact, should be carefully analyzed as a preliminary to the standard practice instructions which will be discussed later. One of the most important uses of position specifications, however, is found in employment. The specifications can be used as a basis for questioning the applicant, for describing the work to him if preliminary negotiations have to be done by letter, for writing advertisements to secure prospective workers, and for securing from references their opinion of the applicant's qualifications for the work as outlined. Position specifications submitted to the applicant will help greatly in eliminating without interview those who are manifestly unfitted. "Know the job and then know your applicant for the job" is a good rule.

SOURCES OF WORKERS. With the requirements of the position well in mind through analysis, the executive or other employment officer of the social agency may proceed to tap the various sources through which workers may be secured.

(*a*) *Governmental Agencies Follow the Merit System.* An agency which is a branch of government—such as a department of public welfare, health, or recreation—will, it is to be presumed, secure its new employees through the personnel office of the unit of government of which the agency is part. It may be taken for granted that most of the governmental agencies which fall within the scope of this book follow the merit system. The administrator in that case will have to use the procedures for securing new personnel which are prescribed by that system. Those procedures vary more or less in various jurisdictions and can hardly be discussed here. Our own ideas on the subject are presented in a chapter of our book *The Public Welfare Administrator.*

We might interject here that a good deal of loose terminology is found in the field of employment. Various authorities disagree as to the names to be applied to the processes and material used. Let us presume, for our purpose, that each job in the agency has first been explained in a written job description which tells what the incumbent is supposed to do. Then each job is classified according to major and minor title—as, for example, "clerk, junior." After this, position specifications are set up for each classified job. Sometimes, as noted above, position specifications are called the "job analysis." If you prefer another name, you might call it "qualification standards" as does the Federal Security Agency, which in *A Personnel Program*, its Training Manual No. 3, published in 1944 by its Division of Personnel Administration, describes them as follows: "Qualification standards for a position are statements of the amounts of various knowledges, abilities, skills, and personal qualities necessary for successful performance of the work of that position, together with objective evidences of those characteristics."

Private agencies, as well as public agencies which do not always have to use governmental personnel units, may find useful the suggestions which follow.

(*b*) *Consult Present Staff Members.* Members of the present staff afford an obvious first source of potential workers. If staff members come up to satisfactory standards of personality and performance they are likely to know people of the same capacities who would like to work with the organization and with whom they in turn would like to work. The staff member, moreover, has a feeling of pride in being able to recommend someone. Reciprocally, the new member starts out with a feeling of good will toward the staff because he secured the job through one of its members. Obviously, if the person so recommended is not employed, the employing officer must be careful to avoid any chance of offense when he explains the reason to the staff member, but explanation will not be difficult if the agency utilizes proper methods and standards of employment.

Board members may also be used as a source of job candidates, so long as they do not suggest relatives.

(*c*) *Employment Agencies.* The source perhaps most generally used in obtaining new employees is the employment agency. Unfortunately there is no central, national placement agency for all professional social workers. The Social Work Vocational Bureau of New York City specializes in case workers. Most of the national social work associations, such as the Boy Scouts of America and the

YWCA, operate their own personnel departments. To them the local agency may turn when professional and executive positions are to be filled. In the local community, the branches of the United States Employment Service or of the State Employment Services may be used for clerical and stenographic help. Another resource may be a reputable commercial employment bureau (beware of the unethical kind!). Further, the typewriter agencies often have lists of stenographers and typists and will help the employer to secure suitable people. Then, too, local agencies of office machinery companies usually have lists of skilled operators. The sales representatives realize that the availability of a competent operator may help to sell the machine and that a person with special training and experience will probably operate the equipment better than the unskilled workers who, without adequate training, might be put on the job by the purchaser of the equipment.

(*d*) *Advertising.* Advertising also may be effective in securing employees. National social work magazines, such as *The Survey,* and the publications of national agencies often carry advertisements for professional help. Local newspapers may be used for getting stenographers, clerks, and typists. Some discreet seekers for help through advertising do not give the name or address of the organization but merely describe the job and ask the applicant to write to a box number. It is much easier to sift out applications received in this way and to ask those who seem promising to come to the office for an interview than to see personally a large number of applicants, many of whom are entirely unsuited to the position.

One of the seminar that made a study of this book said he did not like "blind ads." We do, because they do not reveal to an unsatisfactory employee of the organization who may read it the fact that you may be looking for someone to replace him if you can find a good substitute. They also keep from the public such information about what your agency pays for jobs as might be misunderstood. They give you a chance to head off a lot of undesirable candidates. They enable you to select the candidates who are apparently best qualified for consideration, without the exertion of pressure from unqualified applicants or their "inspired" friends.

(*e*) *Educational Institutions.* Graduate schools of social work are obvious sources for professional personnel—either recent or imminent graduates who wish to begin their careers with this agency, or former graduates with whom the school has kept in touch. Students of social work who have taken their supervised field work training with

the agency often are employed later on its professional staff. Colleges and universities may suggest personnel for semi-professional positions. High schools and business colleges are good sources for office workers.

(*f*) *Volunteer Workers.* In addition, volunteer workers who have shown unusual aptitude may sometimes be taken on the employed staff. This is especially true when the volunteer has engaged in the social work of the organization and has perhaps taken special training to qualify himself better for the service which he has voluntarily rendered. Yet the executive must help the volunteer to adjust to the vigorous day-long procedures of the staff. His unpaid service may have habituated him to less strenuous activity within the agency.

(*g*) *Former Applicants.* Another source of personnel is the list of past applicants who did not seem so well qualified for the particular position as the one who was chosen but looked like good material for future reference when a suitable opening developed or when they had achieved more experience or training which would qualify them for similar jobs.

(*h*) *Employees of Other Agencies.* In some instances, rather than wait for people to be suggested or to apply for a position, the social agency may think it desirable to approach someone in another agency whose work has been noticed. In such a case, although the agency might approach the prospect directly, it is better, as a matter of ethical relationship with the other agency, to approach him through the executive of that agency. The right kind of executive would not try to dissuade one of his own employees from bettering himself professionally even though it meant losing him to another organization. Yet the executive should not give up an employee (provided he wants to keep him) without a little sales talk in which he shows the employee clearly the opportunities for satisfaction and advancement in his present work. It is a matter of professional courtesy for the employing officer of the first agency to make no offer to the prospective employee if there is objection on the part of the latter's employer. On the other hand, if the executive of the second agency were arbitrary in the matter, the employing officer might be justified in making his offer in spite of objection.

This point of ethics was vigorously opposed by Miss Lillian Quinn, who at the time of our first edition was secretary of the then Joint Vocational Service (for social workers) but now is Executive Secretary of the Westchester County Council of Social Agencies. Her experience is so important that her opinion is worth quoting:

I myself would not care to work for anyone who consulted my board or my executive before he consulted me, if he were thinking of considering me for a new job. I know of no circumstance under which I would want to be consulted first about a member of my staff. Any other than a direct approach to the employee herself is always at least discourteous. It is often unjust. If a person is mature enough and has the qualities essential to be trusted with the responsibilities of a social work job, even a beginning social work job, she can be trusted to handle fairly the question of a new opportunity, granted the agency she is with deals fairly.

We hate to disagree with so practiced an authority. Nevertheless it seems to us that the executive who tries to "steal" an employee from another organization without the consent of its executive runs the difficulty, if it is another social agency, of incurring ill will and lack of co-operation or, if it is a business house in the community, of creating antagonism which may represent a serious loss in public good will, in contributions, or in both.

We might add, as an employer who occasionally has lost personnel to other jobs, that we never offer a person a raise in pay to persuade him to stay with us. If he was not worth the higher salary with us before the outside offer came, he is not worth it afterward. We try to raise salaries within the minimum and maximum of the classification for each job, according to schedule and merit, and we are not to be pushed by pressure of other offers. Moreover, we are not moved by an ultimatum that a person will quit if he does not get a raise to which he is not yet entitled. His implied resignation is promptly accepted.

FILLING THE POSITION. Regardless of the source or way in which the applicant or prospect for the job is discovered, he should usually be employed only after a personal interview.

(*a*) *Personal Interview Desirable.* A personal interview is desirable even though letters from the applicant have indicated his probable interest and desirability for the position. Photographs, often required on governmental applications, do not always tell the current truth. Unless the candidate is well known to the employing officer from previous experience, a personal conference seems essential. Only in this way can the organization know in advance the person who is being employed.

A personal interview also gives the applicant a chance to know the organization and to "size up" the job thoroughly before he takes it. We once paid the expenses of a candidate for an important professional position to come halfway across the country to be inter-

viewed. Our minds met. She stayed with the agency over fifteen years before leaving for a better position. That was a good investment!

Private agencies usually pay the moving expenses of new personnel from out of town. Governmental agencies usually pay neither the traveling expenses of candidates nor the moving expenses of new employees. You are on your own with the government!

Sometimes it is possible to have a person in an agency similar to yours located in or near the candidate's home town interview him. That procedure, however, should be used, if at all, to eliminate undesirable candidates rather than actually to employ desirable ones. Better see them!

(*b*) *Application Blanks.* In addition to the correspondence which may have preceded the interview, a formal application blank is a great aid to effective employment. The use of a blank makes it possible, as a matter of form, to ask questions which might otherwise be difficult. It saves time in ascertaining the essentials of the candidate's ability. It provides a permanent record of his fundamental qualifications. It gives a specimen of his handwriting, if this is an important consideration in the work. A typical application blank—one used by the Community Chest and Council of Houston and Harris County, Texas—is reproduced herewith.

APPLICATION FOR EMPLOYMENT
COMMUNITY CHEST AND COUNCIL
OF HOUSTON AND HARRIS COUNTY

Date ____________

Name ____________ *Address* ____________ *Tel.* ____

Position Desired ____________ *Salary Expected* ____________

Single ______ Married ______ Widow-er ______ Dependents ____

Date of birth ______ Height ____ Weight ____ Hair ____ Eyes ____

Religious denomination ____________ Place of Birth ____________

How long have you lived in Houston? ____________ Have you any relatives in the employ of the Community Chest and Council or its Agencies? ____________

At present employed by ____________

May we inquire of your present employer? ______ Has your application for bond ever been rejected? If so, state details. ____________

Experience

Check kinds of work and write in others in which you have had experience:

Bookkeeping ______ Stenographic ______
Calculating ______ Stencil Cutting ______
Clerical (General) ______ ______
Filing ______ ______

Check kind of Office Appliance you have had experience in operating:

Adding Machine ______ Ditto ______
Bookkeeping ______ Mail Machine ______
Calculating ______ Mimeograph ______
Dictating ______ PBX ______
Elliott Addressing Machine ______ Typewriter ______

Typing Speed ______ Dictation Speed ______

(Section below this line not to be filled out by applicant.)

Date employed ______ Position ______ Salary ______

Signed ______

Education

School or College	*Name and Location*	*Year From To*	*Course of Study*	*Year Graduated*
High School				
College				
Business College				
Other Training				

Previous Employment

Dates		*Employer's Name & Address*	*Immediate Superior*	*Position Held*	*Salary*	*Reason for Leaving*
From	*To*					

REFERENCES (Not Relatives)

NAME	*ADDRESS*	*BUSINESS*	*Yrs. of Acquaintance*

This space may be used for any additional information you may wish to submit: ____

I hereby affirm that my answers to the foregoing questions are true and correct. In the event of my employment to a permanent position with the Community Chest and Council, I agree to comply with the rules and regulations governing my employment. I agree to file my resignation TWO WEEKS prior to date effective, in the event I should terminate my employment.

It is my understanding that the FIRST THREE MONTHS of my employment are probationary, and if my services have not proved satisfactory my employment may be discontinued on a week's notice without prejudice.

(Signature of Applicant) ______________________

The reasons for the questions on this application blank are obvious. All the questions are pertinent to most positions, and the answer to any one of them may be a factor in influencing decisions in employment. They give an idea of the age, background, and qualifications of the applicant. The record of experience is valuable also for getting references from previous employers. Even the hobbies or recreations, if these are given, are a guide to the character and interests of the applicant. Such information may help to form an estimate of the sum total of his personality.

Religion, too, is important in choosing a person to work with a special group, especially if you want a diversity of points of view in your staff. We are aware that some governmental agencies prohibit questions about religion lest prejudice be exercised, but we are talking about *social* agencies which have a respect for all religious faiths and want to know the total personality of the candidate for a job.

The application blank need not be printed. It can be dittoed, mimeographed, or otherwise duplicated. Even in these more inexpensive forms the application blank will adequately serve the needs of the organization.

(*c*) *Conference with the Prospect.* The filled-out application blank is not, however, a sufficient basis for a decision on employment. As noted above, a personal discussion—based in part on the points brought out in the blank, in part on the job description and position specifications, and in part on a general sizing up of the individual—must supplement the blank.

In the first interview with the examiner the applicant should be made to feel at ease and free to express himself. All that in case work the examiner has learned about first interviews with clients should be utilized, if possible, in getting a complete picture of the applicant's personality and experience. Walter V. Bingham says, "The object of an interview is to get information, to give information, and to make a friend."

As to the method of conducting the interview, two social work executives have expressed themselves as follows:

"The information and impressions you get depend greatly upon the questions you ask and upon how you direct the conversation."

"I find that asking certain questions—as, for instance, 'What books have you read recently?' and 'What is some interesting magazine article you have read?'—are valuable."

These and other questions are calculated to bring out the prospect's special interests and to make him feel natural and tell about his real enthusiasms. This self-revelation will help to give to the employer that full understanding of the applicant which he seeks. It is well to ask why the candidate thinks he would like the prospective job and why he thinks he could perform it well. His attitude toward it will help to indicate whether he is a person who will fit into the organization.

The interview for important positions may take an hour or more. Just looking at the candidate is not enough. The appropriateness of his dress, his grooming, his poise, his alertness, and his ability to share in a discussion are all factors to be observed. All the time necessary to find out definitely whether the applicant will satisfactorily fill the job is well worth while if it results either in eliminating undesirable applicants or in securing an adequate employee. Often the person who seems the least promising at the beginning of an interview develops into the best prospect. On the other hand, the one who at first appears most promising may, after a thoroughgoing discussion, show attitudes and gaps in personality which will disqualify him.

(*d*) *Describing the Job to the Prospect.* In addition to finding

out all about the applicant, it is only fair and wise to tell him as much as possible about the job itself. A good way to find out what sort of person the applicant is would be to ask him what he would like to know about the job. The more he wants to know, the more competent he is likely to be. The nature of his questions will be a good guide to his competence.

Furthermore, the interviewing officer should not only tell the applicant the advantages of the job, but its disadvantages as well. It is only fair to be as frank as possible. In this way, as one executive suggests, a challenge may be presented which the right candidate will enthusiastically accept. Also, if the applicant at the beginning knows the worst about the work he will not be disappointed later by certain aspects of it which might not have been discussed during the interview.

Moreover, he should be encouraged to investigate the organization itself so that he can determine, in view of all the facts, whether he wants to work in it. An experienced applicant will probably do this anyway. Nevertheless, the employing officer should encourage investigation. It is unwise to employ a person who will become dissatisfied and disappointed. He will probably soon resign because of factors about which he was not informed, or his efficiency will be lowered by his discontent. Employment is a reciprocal relationship. It should embody those qualities of participation which were discussed at the beginning of this book as essential to the satisfactory conduct of a social agency.

(e) Supplemental Interviews. In addition to the personal interview by the employing officer, it will often be found helpful to have the applicant interviewed by others. A social case worker might be interviewed by the case supervisor and by the district superintendent under whom she is to work; the prospective secretary of a public relations committee, by the chairman and some of the members of the committee; and prospective sub-executives, by some of the other sub-executives with whom they will work. It is expedient, and helpful as well, to have important employees interviewed by the president and other officers of the organization or by influential board members. Some organizations have employment or personnel committees of staff members who interview and discuss applicants for positions. Others have committees of board members with whom important applicants are discussed and whose members interview the candidates.

These procedures do not in any way abrogate the executive's right

to employ anyone he selects within the budgetary requirements of the organization (if he chooses to exercise that right). It is desirable, however, for officers of the organization to share responsibility for the employment of staff members with whom they will come in more than casual contact. The advice of those laymen, based on their own experience, can be very helpful to the executive. Furthermore, if the employee fails to come completely up to expectations, the blame rests not on the employing officer alone but also on the total group who shared in the decision. These methods of group employment utilize our set principle of participation.

(*f*) *Grading the Applicant.* A valuable adjunct to the interview is to have each one who sees the applicant grade him on some sort of point system. This might be set up under the following headings: (1) manner and appearance, including physical qualifications, voice, and poise; (2) education and training; (3) previous experience, including type of supervision, kinds of office equipment used, working conditions, and so on; (4) maturity and stability, including reasons for leaving jobs and schools, nature of social contacts, extent to which decisions are dominated by family, and so forth; (5) leadership capacity, including experience, apparent initiative, flexibility, and the like. A scale of 20 percentage points may be used for each of the five headings, with a possible total of 100 per cent for the nonexistent perfect individual.

The interviewer, when grading the applicant, should keep in front of himself the position specifications for the job and should grade the candidate in terms of the requirements of that job only. The ratings of different interviewers can then be combined and used as a factor in the ultimate decision. Part of the procedure of the employing officer should be to report to those who have advised him on the applicant what action was taken, and, if it was contrary to their recommendation, why.

(*g*) *Dividing the Task of Employment.* In some organizations employment may be divided up as a matter of executive responsibility. In a case work agency, for example, the case supervisor or assistant general secretary might interview all applicants for case work positions, subject to the approval of the executive, and the chief clerk or office manager might be responsible for the employment of the clerical force. In small organizations the executives presumably do all the employing.

(*h*) *Use of References.* The interview should be supplemented by inquiry of those who know the prospective employee and his

work. Sometimes the applicant supplies letters of reference addressed "to whom it may concern." These are usually of little value, because their writers know the bearer is likely to read them. (Who wouldn't?) Usually the applicant will submit a list of persons with whom the employing officer may get in touch.

When writing to these references the employer may make effective use of the position specifications to describe the position for which the applicant is being considered. These, however, do not always meet the situation, and sometimes they are not clearly enough expressed to be understood by an outsider. In one instance, a young man was being considered for publicity work, and one of the requirements for the job was that he should be able to prepare a "house organ," or printed bulletin. A minister whose name had been given as a reference wrote that he didn't know whether the young man could play a house organ, but he thought the youth was musical and if he didn't know how he could learn!

If the "referee" cannot be interviewed personally or by telephone, probably the best plan is to make up a questionnaire on the general qualities desired in employees and to mail it along with the position specifications, a courteous personal letter of request, and—this is important—a stamped return envelope.

References (particularly written ones) must be taken with a grain of salt. Yet, together with that salt, they may prove a valuable addition to the food for thought already provided in the application blank and interview.

(*i*) *Physical Examinations.* In addition to the varied information which is gathered in these ways, physical examinations may serve as a further basis for constructive decision in employment. Although few social agencies require this kind of examination for all their employees, it is a requirement widely used by health agencies and by industrial and business establishments.

Knowledge of the applicant's health and of its relationship to the work proposed may protect him from undertaking duties that would result in his physical or mental breakdown. Manifestly this would be bad for the employee and costly to the organization. A breakdown might mean disruption of the agency's work and loss of the employee's services, either temporarily or permanently, with perhaps payment to him over the period of his illness.

The physical examination should probably be one of the last preliminaries to employment so as to save the cost of unnecessary medical service. Clues to the applicant's health and to the need

for physical examination, if it is not merely routine, may be gained by putting on your questionnaire to previous employers, "How many days have been lost per year by this employee because of illness?"

When the applicants have been sifted out, the survivor or survivors should be subjected to such an examination. The physician (preferably a woman for the women employees) may be one in private practice, who is retained by the agency at a flat rate. Otherwise, examinations may be made by a clinic, a hospital, or some other social agency with which special arrangements have been made. The examiner should always be a person responsible to the agency and one who performs his task in accordance with mutually agreed standards.

Under no circumstances should a certificate from the candidate's personal physician be accepted, because the agency in that case has no control over the nature or thoroughness of the examination and the physician may be too charitable toward the infirmities of his patient. Of course, many personal physicians will render this service adequately; some, however, will not.

Competent agency-controlled physical examination, as a final prerequisite to employment, may result in complete disqualification of the applicant because his psychosomatic condition obviously is not adapted to the requirements of the job. Again, the outcome may be a recommendation for improvement in posture or for corrective measures—such as the fitting of glasses—which will enable him to fill the position satisfactorily. If the applicant has met all of the other requirements except that of health, and if he feels that he can handle the work in spite of the adverse recommendations of the physician, he may be employed with the understanding that the organization has no obligation for the payment of extended sick leave in the case of illness or the development of infirmity. On the other hand, the requirements and equipment of the job may be modified to meet the handicap of the employee. At any rate, the medical examination enables the agency to make its decision regarding employment with full knowledge of the physical facts involved.

(*j*) *Mental, Emotional, and Vocational Tests.* Mental, emotional, and vocational tests also may be used with profit. Probably the best procedure for most agencies is to use one of the increasing number of aptitude testing agencies, if one is available at a reasonable cost.

If this is not possible, an intelligence test of standard type may be given to all promising applicants for work. A knowledge of the grade of intelligence required for a given job will help to eliminate those who obviously cannot measure up to its intellectual requirements. This information also will lessen the difficulty sometimes encountered in hiring a person who is more intelligent than the job requires and will eventually become bored with the job.

Mental tests are not conclusive and should be used only in supplementing the observations of the employing officer. If he thought the prospect a good one yet the intelligence test was unsatisfactory, the applicant might still be employed, but with a mental reservation on the part of the employing officer to watch him carefully to see if he is able to come up to standard. On the other hand, if the employing officer thought well of the applicant and the intelligence test indicated his satisfactory mental status, one judgment would confirm the other. Again, a poor opinion on the part of the employing officer might be confirmed by a low ranking in the intelligence test. Tests so far available largely indicate common sense, education, and life experience. They are not dependable guides to native intelligence. In so far, however, as the qualities tested are those which determine to a large extent a person's suitability for a job, these tests may be considered a valuable aid to employment.

Emotional handicaps may be more serious than mental shortcomings. Some progress has been made in testing for emotional stability. Such tests generally require administration by a trained person. The social agency which wishes to use them will find it wise to consult an industrial psychologist or a psychiatric clinic, to secure competent administration and evaluation.

In addition to specific tests, the agency may use vocational or aptitude tests. Excellent tests for typists and clerks have been devised and give valuable indications as to accuracy and speed in fundamental office processes. Several of these tests are self-administering—the applicant handles them himself and does what he is instructed to do. A key to each is supplied by the publisher. Any intelligent employing officer can grade these tests.

In place of formal vocational tests, improvised ones may be used. For example, a typist might be given a piece of fairly complicated typing, and her accuracy and speed carefully noted. The same test given to the present employees in that job classification and to a number of applicants would afford a ready means of comparison.

Vocational tests may be especially useful for aptitudes on particular jobs for which specially prepared tests are not available. For example, a prospective publicity man might be asked to write a feature story about some phase of the work of the organization. A prospective case worker might prepare a "first interview" on a family which had just applied for assistance. A prospective club leader might be asked to outline a constructive program for a group of boys described in some detail by the employing officer. Obviously only a well-qualified person (or persons) could satisfactorily rate the candidate on the basis of such professional material.

(*k*) *Standards of Education and Training.* The applicant's training and education are important considerations. Equally valuable are the reputation of the school where that training was obtained and the standing attained by the student. Weight should also be given to the experience and maturity of the worker, the kinds of organizations in which he has worked, his general reputation on each job, and the reports of his employers.

Many organizations require that all social workers possess master's degrees from accredited graduate schools of social work with field training in the agency's special work, or graduation from an accredited school of social work plus experience in an accredited social agency.

Each organization should be continually observant of its own standards. It should apply them as rigorously as circumstances will permit, but judiciously (in order that exception can be made for the unusual person in whom personality and native talent compensate for gaps in education and experience). If there are exceptions, however, they should be made consciously and not because of failure to learn the qualifications of the individual.

Many organizations also have educational requirements for their clerical and business staffs. It seems wise in general office work to require that every employee shall be as least a high-school graduate with specific business training. As a rule, when a person is employed who has not the established qualifications (unless he is an older person with long and unusual experience) the employer sooner or later has occasion to regret that they were not enforced at the time of employment.

(*l*) *Experience.* Experience also is a factor in employment. In general it is wise for an organization which employs social workers to make sure that their experience has been in similar agencies or

in those where the experience is readily adaptable to that of the new agency. Social work has become very much specialized. It is well for those who choose specific fields of practice to stick to them, unless there is some strong reason for a change.

Not only professional social workers, but clerical and business workers as well, may be advantageously selected in part because of their kindred experience. For example, a community chest once employed, for checking a list of contributors, a girl who had long had experience in checking prospective customers for a large real estate firm. She proved valuable to the chest because she knew the principles of the work involved and was already familiar with many of the names.

(*m*) *Background.* General background is also a factor in employment. Everything else considered, the person who has read most widely, traveled most extensively, lived under the most diverse conditions, and thought most deeply is likely to be the most useful on a given job. He has resources on which to draw in his relationships with fellow staff members, clients, and the community. He can grasp the significance of the relationship of his work to that of his own and of other organizations.

(*n*) *Personality.* The qualifications of experience, training, and background are only three-quarters of the picture, which must be complete if employment is to be done well. The other quarter is personality. Each position has its own requirements in that respect, and these should be met as adequately as possible.

Appearance is important for the sake of the effect on the public and on the client. Character is fundamental. Adaptability is desirable in many jobs. Enthusiasm may be essential, especially if it must be communicated to others. Friendliness is vital to all satisfactory human relationships. Sincerity is necessary. Tact is indispensable in negotiations. Liking and understanding of people are fundamental. A good sense of humor is a desirable ingredient for any member of the staff. Neatness is essential. Outward appearance is an indication of inward character. The person who neglects himself and is not trim will probably not be neat, clean, or orderly in his work. The balance of evidence would be against him.

Among other qualities sought are alertness, professional ambition, accuracy, courtesy, speed, honesty, interest in the work, dependability, co-operativeness, common sense, teachability, confidence in speaking, good enunciation, willingness, and lack of eccentricities or

habits which would be offensive to those with whom the employee came in contact and upon whose co-operation the success of the job depends.

This list of desirable traits does not mean that all employees should be set in standard molds. Still, the employing officer should have in mind all the requirements of the job from the personal point of view and should see that they are met as far as possible. If the candidate lacks some of the desirable qualities he should be so strong in others that the lack will be counterbalanced.

(*o*) *Age.* Age will sometimes make a difference in the consideration of a candidate for a position. A person may be too young to meet certain situations, or so old that it would be unwise to take him for a position which required long-time service and steady advancement in specialized skill and ability.

(*p*) *Religion.* The religion of the employee might be important in some jobs. For example, a non-Jewish case worker might have trouble in working adequately with an orthodox Jewish family.

(*q*) *Race.* Race also sometimes makes a difference. The employing officer should hold in mind community opinion as well as the attitude of the other members of his staff.

(*r*) *Acceptability to Existing Staff.* An important consideration in selecting staff members is their acceptability to the other members. A like-minded and mutually agreeable staff will get better results than one in which personalities jangle and in which attitudes toward life and work are so at variance that no harmony is possible.

The suggested quartering of the values of training, experience, background, and personality does not indicate that precisely even fractions can or should be carefully observed. After all, the individual is the sum total of all his personality, all his training, all his experience. One job may require more personality than training. Another may require technique above all things, whereas personality may be less important. It is wise in the first case not to sacrifice personality for the sake of skill and in the second case not to make too many concessions to personality when the need is for technical excellence. The discriminating employer will estimate the relative weight of the requirements for the job to be filled and then try to secure the highest possible degree of excellence in each respect.

(*s*) *Marital Status.* The candidate's marital status and number of dependents may also make some difference in the advisability of his employment. If the job is one that requires a great deal of overtime at certain periods and the husband of the prospective

employee objects to this, the wife obviously should not be employed. In the same way, the number of persons dependent on the applicant may have a bearing on the question. If the cost of their support is so great that the applicant will be continually worried because the salary offered is not sufficient, good vocational guidance by the prospective employer should help him get a more remunerative job in some other organization. Married women are often more understanding as case workers than unmarried women. Either with no prospect of children or with their children off their hands, married women also may be more responsible and steady as clerical workers than girls whose chief interest in life is the possibility of marriage.

(*t*) *Relationship to Staff and Board Members.* Further, the applicant's family or personal relationship, if any, to other members of the staff or board might be important. Ordinarily it is unwise for an executive to employ any member of his own family, lest the charge of nepotism be made. Employment of relatives is also undesirable because they may not respond well to office discipline. Moreover, other members of the staff may feel that tales are taken home to the executive and that undue influence is exerted on him in respect to his attitude toward them. It may sometimes be inadvisable to employ two members of the same family on the staff, because they can so easily discuss at home the work of the organization and magnify difficulties and irritations.

It is equally inadvisable to employ relatives or intimate friends of board members, who may carry tales of the methods of the organization which are misunderstood or misrepresented. Other staff members may also suspect favoritism in promotion or in assignment of work because of such an employee's relationship with the board member. The employing officer should always guard against influence in determining whether to employ a given individual. He should also avoid any possible suspicion that influence has been exerted or may be a factor in the staff member's relationship to his job.

TERMS OF EMPLOYMENT IN WRITING. As a sort of "clincher" to employment, it is wise to put its exact terms in writing. Such a statement need not be a printed and signed contract. A letter is sufficient. The original is given to the employee; the carbon copy is filed by the agency with his application, references, and any other pertinent material as part of the individualized personnel record. The letter of confirmation should include an exact statement of

the work to be performed, special arrangements as to unusual hours or as to length of vacation, special leave of absence for education, probationary period, initial pay, amounts and intervals of advance in pay, and any other matters which may be outside the general provisions of the office manual or the accepted practice of the organization. A letter of this nature will prevent many arguments, will withstand unjust claims that may be made on the organization, and will prevent difficulties which might arise from misunderstood verbal agreements.

Some social agencies have come in recent years to use formal contracts, for definite periods of employment, renewable by mutual agreement. These agencies seem well satisfied with their experience. Such contracts would appear to be more binding on the employer than on the employee who is dissatisfied or wishes to move to another agency even if he has a contract. Personlly, we should not wish to keep anyone to whom honor and obligation would not be more binding than any contract. Further, an employee bound by contract against his desire would probably lose in effectiveness as a staff member. Moreover, we should not wish a contract to limit an employee's opportunities for professional advancement. When he wants to go, let him go and wish him good luck!

NOTIFY THOSE NOT EMPLOYED. When a job has been filled, the organization ought to notify all the unsuccessful candidates who have seriously considered it, telling them (in diplomatic phraseology) why they were unsuccessful. This procedure is a matter of justice to the ones not chosen, so that they may know they are free to accept some other position. It is also a matter of fairness, since they will know why (in positive, not negative terms) the other person was employed, and this knowledge may be helpful to them in getting similar jobs later.

Such a practice is a matter not only of ordinary human decency but also of good public relations. Each unsuccessful applicant is a potential "booster" or "knocker" for the organization. If he is courteously informed by letter that the position has been filled he is in a much pleasanter frame of mind than if he hears nothing at all. Courteous treatment is further important for the reason that candidates rejected because a better qualified person was available at the moment may later be worth considering for this or another position in the agency. A file should be kept of rejected but promising applicants. How they were handled on their initial application naturally will make a difference in their later availability.

QUESTIONS

1. In the work of some typical social agency you know, what advantages or disadvantages may be observed as the result of the employment policy it follows?

2. Does this social agency make continual analyses and maintain adequate position specifications of its various jobs? If so, what principles are followed?

3. From what sources does this agency secure names of prospective workers?

4. What is its policy in approaching employees of other agencies?

5. Does the agency always give personal interviews to applicants for positions?

6. Does the agency use an application blank? If so, what are the chief items of inquiry?

7. How is the conference with the prospective worker carried out?

8. How are applicants rated, if at all?

9. Who is responsible for employment in this agency?

10. What use is made of references?

11. What use is made of physical examinations?

12. What use is made of mental, emotional, and vocational tests?

13. What standards of education, training, experience, and background does this agency enforce in regard to its various jobs?

14. What requirements of personality does it make?

15. What is its policy toward the marital status of the worker?

16. What is its policy toward the relationship of the prospective employee to other staff members or to board members?

17. Are the terms of employment put in writing?

18. Are unsuccessful candidates for jobs notified of the action taken?

19. How, in your opinion, might any of these procedures be improved?

Chapter XVI

Personnel Policies

AFTER HIRING, WHAT? Employment is only the beginning of personnel relations. The whole area of efficient social service depends primarily on qualified and skilled personnel working under good employment conditions. Community councils of social agencies, community chests, national and local social work agencies, and bodies of professional social workers have been interested for many years in promoting and operating good personnel practices. Community chests and councils in a number of cities have made personnel studies in recent years which have clarified job descriptions, job titles, and personnel specifications and have developed principles of personnel practice. This chapter is a distillation of some of this recent diversified material condensed through the "worm" of our own experience. We trust it is not too strong a potion for general consumption.

PUBLIC PERSONNEL PROCEDURE PRESCRIBED IN LAWS OR REGULATIONS. Public agencies have necessarily developed definite personnel policies and procedures as merit systems and civil service programs were established. You cannot operate a government without rules! Personnel procedures are usually prescribed in detail in the laws, manuals, rules, and regulations which control the operation of tax-supported agencies. Where the prescribed standards are low, there is not much that can be done to improve them quickly. The progressive administrator may have to wait for legislators, auditors, and attorneys general to change their minds. Of course he may discreetly stimulate change while doing the best he can through liberal thought and action within the limitations placed upon him. On the other hand, many public agencies have sound personnel policies which private organizations and other public agencies would do well to emulate.

STANDARD PRACTICE MORE DIFFICULT IN PRIVATE AGENCIES. Private agencies represent a personnel horse of a different administrative

color. They are free to establish sound and progressive procedures.

Yet the classification of employees and other aspects of personnel policy in private agencies present certain problems with respect to acceptance and administration. Member agencies of community chests and councils are autonomous. To them usually the community chest or council of social agencies can only recommend standards. Such recommendations can be quite effective, however, if personnel procedure is studied co-operatively and common decisions are reached through shared, informed discussion.

Recent studies in a number of cities show that there are few common personnel standards and practices among the agencies and that few personnel policies are in written form. In some known (and we fear in many unknown) instances the employees' ideas of what is current practice and what the executive describes as current practice do not always agree. Of course, the ideas will be divergent if the holders of the ideas no not read or remember what is written down —as in the case of the girl in our office who just could not work on the Saturday morning after Labor Day because she had made a date for it. She forgot (how conveniently) that the office manual called for Saturday morning work from Labor Day to the close of the fall campaign.

PERSONNEL COMMITTEES ESSENTIAL. Group studies and recommendations regarding personnel policies may be made through the collaboration of agency representatives in a community council. In addition, individual agencies may well develop their own policies through the operation of a personnel committee.

Personnel committees may be organized in several ways. It is preferable that the committee should be composed of representatives of both the board and the staff. If joint study and action is impracticable, statements of personnel practice should be developed by board and staff committees separately but with the co-operation of the agency executive. He is the human link between the protectiveness of the board and the hopes of the staff—and he may find things so hot that he will wish he was a missing link. At any rate, full opportunity should be given for the discussion of differences of opinion between the board and staff groups before final action on the personnel policies by the agency's board of directors.

The personnel committee should be a standing committee responsible for: (1) drawing up adequate personnel policies and presenting them to the board of directors for approval; (2) establishing and maintaining a job classification plan; (3) keeping constantly

alert and informed regarding the working relationships of the staff and the board; and (4) taking care of individual cases as they may occur. (The committee must apply with judgment and discretion the policies that the board has approved as its working rules.)

Work of the personnel committee is usually on the basis of long-time planning rather than emergency decision. The committee attempts to develop definite standards that are desirable, although these may be difficult for some agencies to put into practice quickly. The standards developed are not made retroactive or applied to eliminate current employees, but they are used in the promotion of employees from one position to another.

ADMINISTRATION OF PERSONNEL PRACTICE. The personnel policies should be recorded (usually they are made a part of the office manual). The record should contain all practices that have been formulated and should be available for every staff member to read. The personnel policies should be reviewed as conditions change and as new questions of policy arise. If unusual emergencies or crises make it advisable to modify the personnel practice, both the board and staff should discuss temporary alterations to fit the transitory situations.

STANDARDS OF PERSONNEL PROCEDURE. In recent years a considerable degree of common opinion has been reached by national and local personnel groups in social work. An excellent statement of standards has recently been developed by a committee of the American Association of Social Workers (AASW) and approved by its Board and by its 1946 Delegate Conference. That is authoritative enough for most social agencies! A large part of the material in the rest of this chapter will be quoted from that generally sound and excellent statement. Our own independent comment and material will be given without quotation marks.

BASIC PRINCIPLES OF PERSONNEL PROCEDURE. "We support the merit principle in the selection, retention, promotion, and dismissal of employees. The person best qualified to do the job should be selected without regard to race, color, sex, creed, marital status, residence, or national origin, except as the function or auspices of the agency limits the personnel who might be used effectively. There should be no discrimination on the basis of political or union affiliation.

"Selection and maintenance of personnel on the basis of competence should be supported by a continuous operation of personnel procedures mutually understood by employer and employee.

"Employer and employee alike have a responsibility for honesty in preliminary discussion of the position, and both are responsible for carrying out the terms of their joint agreement.

"The right of individuals to bargain collectively and to be represented by a union of their choice is recognized and approved by the Association." It is legal, too!

"There should be machinery to enable and encourage staff members to participate in the development of agency policy and program."

CLASSIFICATION PLANS. "Agency administration is responsible for defining all positions within the agency, classifying them on the basis of kind and degree of responsibility, so that employees may have a clear understanding of their duties and the agency may have a proper basis for paying its employees." We mentioned this in the previous chapter.

"The procedure for establishing a classification plan includes: (1) an analysis of the duties of each employee as currently assigned; (2) the evaluation of these job analyses to determine the degree of responsibility involved in each; (3) the grouping of similar positions in one class; (4) a written job description for each class of position; (5) the determination of the personnel qualifications [we would say position specifications] requisite to adequate performance in each class; and (6) the arrangement of the classes of positions in an orderly sequence based on the degree and kind of skill and responsibility required for the various classes.

"In social work, as in other professions, there is a wide range in the competence and skill of the practitioner [worker], and agencies requiring skilled service should provide in their classification plans for utilization and recognition of various degrees of skilled service by appropriate position classification and compensation. The practitioner's service may be equal to or exceed that of some of the supervisory or administrative staff. In setting up the classification plan to allow for great variation in the skill required, it is essential to have several classes, arranged in a series, rather than to allow a long range within the one class."

This principle applies also to non-professional positions. Put them all in classes, in series.

"There should be staff participation in the establishment of the classification plan and an understanding of the basis for assigning the respective positions to a particular place in the classification plan. The machinery for careful, periodic review of the agency's

classification plan should be established and followed. Use should be made of personnel standards promulgated by appropriate standard-setting groups, such as technical personnel agencies, professional associations, national social agencies, councils of social agencies, and others. Uniform job titles and uniform terminology used to describe agency operations greatly facilitate the use of standard-setting material and simplify national and community-wide personnel administration."

PAY PLANS. "Agencies should have a pay plan, made up of salary scales for each class of positions, based upon a comprehensive, carefully worked out position classification plan. There should be provision for a minimum and maximum for each class and a series of intermediate steps which will permit periodic increases in compensation for satisfactory performance. There should be provision for automatic continuity increases on the basis of acceptable performance and for additional increment based on outstanding performance. Increases should be considered at regularly specified intervals.

"Factors to be considered in establishing a salary scale for a position are: (1) the value of the service to the community; (2) the degree of responsibility of the employee for exercising judgment affecting others, both in number of persons affected and extent to which affected; (3) the skill required to perform adequately; (4) the rates of pay for comparable service in other agencies and services in the community and nation; and (5) the right of the professional worker to a salary which will afford basic economic security and allow him to participate in the professional and cultural activities of the community and to develop and maintain his professional skills."

These factors apply to the non-professional worker too. He also needs satisfactory community relations and a chance for vocational development.

"In addition to salary, special expenses incident to the performance of the job, such as transportation on the job and fees for luncheons and conferences important to the full functioning on the job, should be a charge against the agency and not against the employee's salary. Per diem and automobile mileage payment should be sufficient to cover the employee's actual expenses.

"There should be a definite number of hours specified as the employee's work week, and the pay plan should allow for adjustments if the work week is extended or reduced.

"In order that an agency maintain a sound salary plan it is necessary that it make a systematic and periodic review of its pay plan and an evaluation of its jobs and the way in which their functioning carries out the purpose of the agency, making changes as current conditions indicate. Modifications should be based on scientific, objective study of changes in job responsibility, the current standard of living, and trends in salary plans in the social work field and in related fields. A standing committee, a personnel division, or some group especially appointed for this purpose should be charged with the responsibility of maintaining the current and the best information available in relation to salaries and the problems interrelated with them for the agency. This should be a regular function and not a casual or emergency assignment.

"Agencies doing similar work in local communities should develop comparable wage standards for similar positions; these wage scales when applied uniformly throughout the community should make for greater stability of personnel and also stimulate agencies to maintain higher standards of service for the community."

PERQUISITES AS PART OF COMPENSATION. In addition to compensation in actual cash, the social agency should consider what its employees receive in board, lodging, uniforms, laundry, automobile expense, and other perquisites which may add to the actual compensation. All these items should be taken into consideration in figuring the total salary paid and its relation to current practice either in the community or in the profession.

DAILY RATES OF PAY. Not only a monthly or annual rate of pay but a daily rate as well has to be computed in organizations when temporary help is employed or when an employee begins work at some time other than the first of the month. Some social agencies figure on a thirty-day month, including Sundays and holidays, and pay a worker one-thirtieth of his salary for each day. Others do not include Sundays but use instead a twenty-six-day month and pay each worker one twenty-sixth of his monthly rate for each day on which he actually works. On this basis a day-to-day employee is not paid for holidays which happen to occur during his employment. A worker on a monthly pay roll, however, would be paid for holidays. The twenty-six-day month in this case would be used only for figuring the daily salary due the employee if he had not begun work on the first of the month. The basis of payment for days of service, whether it rests on a thirty-day or a twenty-six-day month, must be thoroughly understood if employees are to be satisfied with the amount of their pay.

If the agency is on a five-day week, the twenty-six-day month for day-to-day workers would be amended to a twenty-two day month—by deducting four Saturdays, which count as a full day each, from the 26.

FREQUENCY OF PAYMENT. Payment is usually by the month rather than by the day or week. Most social agencies pay their staffs semimonthly, on the fifteenth and the last day for the half-month completed on each of those days. Weekly payment is more frequent than is usually necessary, considering the trouble involved in making up a pay roll.

Prompt payment is essential even though the money should have to be borrowed. You cannot borrow in a governmental agency, and you should not have to in an agency supported by a community chest, which should advance funds as needed within the total annual approved budget.

PROMOTION. Important as is the initial salary, the rate of advance is equally important. Ordinarily every employee, whether professional or clerical, expects to grow in technical skill and usefulness to the organization and to have that growth reflected by an increase in his pay. The ideal situation exists when the organization is so aware of the increased skill of its employees and so liberal in its terms of advance that no one has to ask for an increase. The employee's expectation should be surpassed by the recognition of his service rather than dampened by the thought that he is not getting adequate recognition. Funds, however, are not always available to sustain this ideal.

Some social agencies, like many business firms, have a plan of salary increases at the rate of five or ten dollars a month every six or nine months up to the maximum figure for the position. It should be understood that this rate of increase is granted only if the employee has earned it and that those who cannot earn it are not wanted in the organization.

In times of rising costs of living, proportionate increases or cost-of-living bonuses may be authorized. The latter are preferable. When prices go down, it is less painful to the victim's morale to reduce his bonus than to cut his pay!

EMPLOYEES ELIGIBLE FOR OPEN POSITIONS. Promotion obviously may not be merely within a given job, on the basis of skill rather than of seniority. It may also be from one job to another. The best-conducted organizations fill all their higher positions in this way as far as possible. These agencies believe in using people who know the

organization and endeavor to make every worker feel as each soldier in Napoleon's army was said to have felt—that he had a marshal's baton in his knapsack. A worker should be encouraged to train for higher positions in the organization for which he is otherwise qualified. Even if there is doubt as to his ability to fill the job as well as someone from the outside he should be given a chance if there is a possibility that he can make good. "Employees should have an opportunity to apply for open positions. There should be a definite plan for informing staff members of openings in the staff and opportunity provided for them to apply."

WORK ASSIGNMENT. "Assignment of responsibilities and duties should be covered in a written statement. As major changes in the employee's responsibilities are made, he should be advised in writing. The areas in which he is expected to use his professional discretion should be delineated. Rating of his performance should be based on a clear understanding of both parties as to the responsibilities and duties assigned."

ORIENTATION. "Employees, regardless of the relevance, kind, and amount of previous education and experience, require a designated and carefully planned orientation period [for adjustment] to the specific duties for which they are being employed. Such an orientation should be provided for employees promoted or transferred to other positions within the same agency as well as for employees newly appointed to the agency. Previous education and experience should be fully utilized in the orientation period.

"Such an orientation program should provide the employee with sufficient knowledge to meet the responsibilities assigned to him as they are assigned. This knowledge may be imparted to the employee through conferences with his immediate superior and other agency staff members, through group meetings [regular staff meetings, special programs for new employees, and seminars and study groups for the regular staff], through actual practice in performance of the duties of the job with supervisory consultation, through review of agency manuals, history, policy, and procedure, and through related reading. Where new employees are appointed in sufficient numbers, there are additional values to the employees in having much of the orientation material presented to the group rather than given individually."

OPPORTUNITY FOR STAFF DEVELOPMENT. "In the interest of rendering the highest possible service to clients, employees should have opportunity for development of their skills. Agencies should facili-

tate such learning by the provision of well qualified supervisors and consultants, by safeguarding the supervisory time allotted for conferences, by carefully planned staff meetings for discussion of agency plans and social work problems and methods, by planning for participation in staff committee work around agency and professional problems, by providing professional literature, and by allowance of leave for attending social work conferences, seminars, and institutes and for protracted leaves for professional education.

"As a further aid to development, employees should be encouraged to participate in and provide leadership for staff meetings, inter-agency meetings, and community or neighborhood meetings. Participation in state conferences of social work, regional or national agency meetings, and social work professional associations contribute largely to the development of strong professional personnel and pay dividends to the agencies encouraging their employees to participate in such groups."

STAFF PARTICIPATION IN POLICY-MAKING AND PROGRAM OF AGENCY. "The agency should utilize the experience and professional resources of the staff to the fullest extent in the formulation and revision of policies, administrative procedures, and program. There should be definite avenues for participation of the staff in determining agency policies, procedure, and program."

This goes for non-professional workers, too, up to the limit of their capacities.

STANDARDS OF PERFORMANCE. "The agency should develop written standards of performance for all positions in its classification plan. Such standards are necessary as a basis for objective evaluation of the performance of staff members. Standards of performance should describe the quality and quantity of performance expected for each duty in a job. The full participation of staff members concerned with the use of standards for a particular position is essential in the development of such standards."

This also applies to non-professional workers. An agency should be a little segment of democracy.

PERSONNEL RECORDS, MEASUREMENT OF PERFORMANCE, REFERENCES. Various records, evaluations, and ratings are of great value in personnel administration.

(*a*) *Records.* "Agencies should maintain a personnel record for each employee containing applications, references, contracts or agreements, work assignments, evaluation and service ratings, and

correspondence. This material should be carefully protected against review or use by unauthorized persons."

(*b*) *Evaluations.* "Evaluations are used (a) as the basis for personnel action; (b) to assist the worker in his professional development; and (c) to assist the agency in strengthening its program of service.

"Agencies should provide for each employee, regardless of size of agency staff or length of time the employee has been in his present position, evaluations and ratings at the end of regular intervals on a series of job elements mutually agreed upon as composing the employee's work assignment. Informal evaluation of the employee's work should be a continuous process by employer and employee, with the periodic evaluation summarizing and crystallizing the judgment of evaluator and evaluatee. All persons to whom the employee is directly responsible should participate in the evaluation and in the establishment of the final rating. It is imperative that the employee be evaluated on the degree to which he has performed satisfactorily the jobs actually assigned to him during the period under consideration.

"The best procedure in evaluation includes preparation by both evaluator and evaluatee, by review of examples of the evaluatee's work carefully selected so as to give a true sample, by conference in which there is full discussion of the employee's work, and by understanding on the part of each as to the basis for establishment of a rating on each aspect. The final responsibility for determining the evaluation rests with the evaluator. This evaluation should then be read by the employee and he should have opportunity to file a statement covering any points on which he disagrees with the evaluation. At such time as the worker or his supervisor leaves the agency, the evaluation should be brought up to date."

The executive's work, also, should annually be evaluated by a committee of the board. Sometimes, too, objective and responsible staff members may be invited to aid in the evaluation of the executive. He should benefit by such evaluations. He, too, must grow!

In addition, every three to five years, there should be an evaluation of the work of the agency itself, including the executive and persons in supervisory positions, by a qualified person from outside the city.

Evaluations in their final form, though confidential, should be available for the employee to read and should be discussed with him by the evaluator.

(*c*) *Service Ratings.* "In agencies operating under a merit system or civil service, it is common practice to reduce the narrative evaluation to numerical terms for purposes of comparing an employee's work with that of others in the same classification as a basis for personnel action. This is known as the service rating. It is possible to do so if the check sheet or form used is directly related to the factors covered in the narrative evaluation and if the rating sheet has been developed with appropriate weights given to the job elements of the worker under consideration.

"The same principles apply to the determining of the service rating to be given the employee as to the written evaluation; that is, the employee has a right to know how he is scored and to file a demurrer if he is not in agreement with the decision. The responsibility for determining the service rating is not the employee's but the evaluator's."

PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION. "As already indicated, the agency should have a written office or staff manual of personnel administration containing its current classification and pay plans and other policies and procedures. This manual should be available to all staff members at all times. Changes in policy and procedure should begin operating under a given policy only when it has been fully adopted and publicized to all concerned. Areas of personnel administration on which the agency is currently developing new policy should also be known to all the staff.

"The manual should include a clear, well-defined statement as to lines of responsibility in administration of the agency's personnel policies, where final authority rests, how it is delegated, and the duties and responsibilities of the governing board. This statement should also include information as to policy formulation and modification, how it is initiated and carried forward to a definite decision and implementation."

We shall have more to say about office manuals later on.

TENURE, CHANGE OF STATUS, AND TERMINATION OF EMPLOYMENT. Provisions with respect to tenure, change of status, and termination of employment have been suggested by the AASW as follows:

(*a*) *Probation.* "A probationary period up to one year is valuable to employer and employee, to permit the employee to demonstrate his capacity for performance and to determine whether or not each wishes to continue the association on a more permanent basis. Less is expected of the probationary employee because of his lack of familiarity with the position he has assumed than with employees who

have completed probation in the same position, and the agency accepts responsibility for proper orientation and supervision during this period.

"The employee should be told in advance of the length of the probation period and any specific agency expectations for this period. Any extension should be made for a definite length of time. Circumstances may make it desirable for the probationary period to be waived or shortened by mutual agreement. There should be appropriate supervision and fair evaluation during and at the end of the specified period. There should be official notification, in writing, of termination of probation. Prorated sick leave should be allowed during the probation period. The probationer's salary should be within the salary range of the classification in which he is on probation."

Although as long as a year's probation may be desirable for some complex professional positions, three months is generally long enough for non-professional jobs.

"All of the above should apply to the probationary period for newly promoted employees. During the period of probation on the job in the higher category the employee should be entitled to return to the previous position if the probationary period is not successfully completed.

"A statement of reasons for dismissal or demotion should be given in writing if the probationary worker wishes. The agency need hold no hearing unless the employee charges the agency with discrimination as the basis for releasing him or a charge of discrimination is made on behalf of the employee. In case the probation period is not to be completed, two weeks' termination notice should be given by either party."

(*b*) *Temporary Employment.* "Temporary workers employed for a six months' period or less, or to substitute for permanent staff on leave, should be subject to the same conditions of employment which apply to the permanent staff. The scope and duties of a temporary position should be clearly defined, as well as the length of time for which the employee is employed. At least the minimum salary for the classification for which the employee is hired should be given to the temporary employee.

"The same hours of work, including days off and holidays falling within the period of temporary employment, accrued vacations, and sick leaves which apply to the permanent staff should also apply to the temporary staff.

(*c*) *Tenure.* "Continuation of employment in the position should be based on the employee's continuing satisfactory performance as indicated by continuous and periodic evaluations. An employee who has successfully completed a probationary period in a position and continues to meet the agency's standards of performance has the right to continue in that position without fear of demotion or dismissal unless the agency retrenches or substantially reorganizes its program and no longer needs his services. In any event, an employee who has successfully completed probation has the right, if demoted, laid off, or dismissed, to the reasons in writing for this action and to a hearing through the agency's personnel appeals procedure if he feels he has been unjustly treated."

(*d*) *Seniority.* "Seniority means the length of time that a staff member has worked in an agency or in a particular position. In taking personnel actions, seniority should only be considered in conjunction with evaluation of performance."

(*e*) *Promotion.* "Promotions and transfers to more desirable positions should be based on seniority, evaluation of performance, and capacity for the new position. Staff members within the agency should have the first consideration in filling such vacancies."

We have had something to say about seniority and promotion earlier in this chapter. A good summation is to promote the oldest of the best.

(*f*) *Lay-Off, Demotion, Dismissal.* "Where reduction in force is indicated because of lack of funds or curtailment of work, such action should be regularized through the application of a lay-off formula based on seniority and evaluation of performance. A method of arriving at such a formula is to assign numerical value to the elements included in the evaluation and in seniority. When rehiring employees following a lay-off, the inverse of the lay-off procedure should be followed, and employees still laid off should first be offered employment in work which they are qualified to do.

"The employee should be given written notice of such action; permanent employees should have at least 30 days' notice and probationary or temporary employees 15 days' notice. The amount of notice due an employee should be definitely stipulated in the agency's personnel manual. The employee is entitled to definite reasons for such action, in writing if requested, and to a fair hearing if he believes there has been discrimination. The agency may reserve the privilege of relieving the staff member of his duties during this period. If dismissed for incompetence, the employee should be paid

for the required notification period. If dismissed for malfeasance, he need not be compensated. No notice is required where the length of employment was specified at time of hiring, as in the case of temporary workers."

(*g*) *Resignations.* "An employee who resigns should give written notice as far in advance as possible, observing the agency's minimum requirements. A 30-day notice is recommended as minimum. The more responsible the position, the greater the amount of notice the employee should give. The employee's services should be available to the agency during the notice period in order that he may complete his work and that the agency may secure a replacement."

(*h*) *Severance Pay.* "Except in unusual circumstances, the agency owes the employee only accrued salary and unused vacation pay. When an employee is dismissed for reasons beyond his control, and that individual has contributed substantially to the development of the agency over a long period of time, he should be compensated by additional salary as severance pay, based on length and caliber of service."

There is no uniform practice in providing separation allowance for staff members who are ready to retire. These situations usually call for individual consideration. As participation in retirement plans becomes more general this problem will cease to exist.

"Participation in a retirement system should be helpful in discharging the employer's responsibility at the time of severance. In a retirement system under which the benefits are all vested in the employee, such contributions as the employer has made to the retirement system remain to the credit of the employee and may properly be taken into consideration in calculating the severance pay to which the worker is entitled."

Under a good retirement system such as that recently established by the National Health and Welfare Retirement Association, the agency does not owe the employee anything beyond unpaid salary and accrued vacation pay.

(*i*) *Retirement and Superannuation.* "The agency should have a definite plan for superannuation and retirement of staff, flexible in regard to the point at which an employee should be retired but the decision being based upon definitely established and readily known criteria. Until such time as social workers are eligible for federal social insurance, the agency has full responsibility for providing through the best available means an adequate protection for its employees. When social workers are eligible for federal social insur-

ance, there will undoubtedly need to be a retirement benefit plan which will supplement the federal insurance. The retirement plan should be adequate as to amount of benefits and protection to all workers regardless of length of time in the agency's employ. It should recognize the need in the social work field for provision for retirement or restricted activity for many workers at 60 years or younger."

The National Health and Welfare Retirement Association, to which all employees of all health and welfare agencies become eligible if their agencies will adopt the plan, meets almost exactly the requirements stated above.

APPEALS PROCEDURE. "Regardless of the size of the agency, there should be provision for the adjustment of personnel issues and a procedure for hearing appeals, properly described in the agency's personnel manual. Normal channels for adjusting differences should be utilized first. If the employee feels dissatisfied with any personnel action taken by the agency toward him, he has the right to a written statement of the basis for such action. He is responsible for written presentation of specific bases for his dissatisfaction. The appeal board should provide for equal representation of persons selected by the employee and employer and that they should select one or more persons acceptable to both parties.

"The hearing should be set at an appropriate time, with adequate notice to all parties but as soon as possible after the action against which the employee is appealing. The employee has the right to be represented by legal counsel, if he wishes. A transcript should be taken of the testimony and findings. The findings and decision of the appeals board should provide for the agency and the appellant. Although under ordinary circumstances the decision of the appeals board will be acceptable, it should not be mandatory upon the agency. Final responsibility for taking and carrying out personnel action rests with the agency board. When the decision indicates that the individual has been discriminated against, the agency should make every effort to compensate the individual for the loss which the employee has suffered."

This sounds to us like an unnecessarily elaborate procedure. We have been connected with private agencies for nearly thirty years, and in that time we have never been in personal contact with the need for such procedure. We have heard of one or two instances, in other communities than those in which we were employed, where it would have been helpful. It seems to be a sound plan to follow, if

ever the need arises. But such a need probably will not occur if the principles of participative administration are followed.

HOURS OF WORK. "In social work, as in any profession, the element of individual judgment and the constant need to render a highly individualized type of service to individuals or groups place a high premium on quality of work rather than on the quantitative repetition of stereotyped operations. For this reason, social work personnel serve agency and community more effectively if hours of work are carefully limited and there is adequate provision for annual leave. The work week should not exceed 40 hours except as unusual or community-wide emergencies may temporarily create extensions. For group work agencies or for institutions the following specific limitations are also recommended: (1) no work day should have more than two work periods; (2) evenings worked should be limited to four per week; (3) a consecutive 36-hour period off should be allowed in each weekly period; and (4) at least one week end per month off. Extensions should be compensated with extra pay.

"Employees should be employed for a definite work week. If, in the development of the agency's program, circumstances or experience should dictate a change in hours, a revised agreement should be sought between the worker and the agency. The agency should not expect or require continuous overtime. The principle of the five-day week has proved sound in many agencies and an effective method of maintaining a high quality of service."

The above general principles of working hours apply to non-professional employees, too. What is sauce for the professional goose should be sauce for the non-professional gander, too. What would the goose be without the gander?

Social work hours in general should be those of the progressive businesses of their communities. The usual hour for opening ranges from 8:30 to 9:00 A.M., with an hour for lunch and closing at 5:00 P.M. During the summer months many agencies close at 4:00 or 4:30 P.M., with a correspondingly earlier opening. The ordinary social agency has a working day of 7½ to 8 hours, with a half-day on Saturday and a working week of from 38 to 44 hours. In the majority of community chests Saturday is a half holiday except at campaign time.

In some communities there is a tendency, in line with the practice of the local community, for social agencies to close or to maintain only a skeleton staff on Saturday mornings during the summer months. In some cities social agencies give their employees every

other Saturday off or one Saturday a month. This practice is usually in effect where overtime work is required of the staff during an emergency period such as a campaign. Some agencies, however, must maintain a skeleton staff even on holidays.

An organization with hours conspicuously shorter than those of the community at large would be criticized on this score. Remember, the agency is part of the community which supports it!

For example, the hours of the Community Chest of Houston and Harris County, Texas, are from 8:30 A.M. to 5:00 P.M., with half an hour for lunch, five days a week. Saturday mornings belong to the employees, except that one-fourth of them in rotation work each Saturday to serve the public. Saturday morning work may be required of all, if necessary, from Labor Day through the annual campaign in late October. Similar hours are observed by the Harris County Red Cross Chapter, except that half the employees work each Saturday morning in turn.

RECESSES. Within the hours which have just been discussed, some organizations allow clerical workers morning and afternoon recesses of varying length. These agencies believe that the rest more than pays for itself both in the greater enthusiasm with which the employees return to work and in the larger amount of work they turn out. The idea of a recess has many advocates, not only in social work but also in business and industry, where the idea gained great and enduring acceptance during the Second World War.

TARDINESS. Even though office hours are established for a social agency, this does not always mean that the employees arrive on time, stay until the day is over, or come regularly every day. The problem of tardiness and absence is difficult to handle. In the smaller organization, if the executive is on time the chances are that the staff will also be prompt.

It is hardly necessary for a social agency to install a time clock for its employees. One chief clerk calls out "Good evening" to staff members who are as much as thirty seconds late. This method, although not official, is said to be as effective as a time clock, and it is never resented (at least, so says the chief clerk).

Some organizations keep a day book which clerical workers are expected to sign as they enter, giving the time of arrival. Promptly at the opening hour the chief clerk draws a line under the last name entered. Those who come in late sign under the line, with the hour of arrival, meanwhile giving the clerk as good an explanation as they can contrive for their lateness. The pay roll is made up from

this day book. Unless the worker signs he is counted absent—a cause for further explanation. This works well in a large office.

Another plan is to have, beside the door, a rack of cards with the names of the office force and, on a table by this rack, two cardboard boxes with slots in the lids. One box is marked "On Time" and the other "Tardy." Employees drop their cards in the "On Time" box until the opening hour; then it is removed. All other cards must be dropped in the "Tardy" box. Cards left in the rack indicate absentees. Both tardiness and absence require explanation. This method is impersonal and seems to meet with satisfaction on the part of those who use it.

Workers should understand that office hours mean work from the beginning of the opening hour until the noon hour, and from the opening of the afternoon session until the closing hour. Some clerical workers devote the ten or fifteen minutes before closing time to getting ready to leave. These enthusiasts for departure of course must be remonstrated with. If they continue in their schedule cutting, they should be dropped from the staff. The office hours of social agencies are not too long for members of the business and professional staff to work continuously within them.

OVERTIME. The specified hours are understood to mean that overtime in general will not be required. Executives of social agencies and professional staff members may make up for overtime work by taking additional time off at other periods of the year. On the other hand, the clerical staff, whose vacations are limited by regulation, should be paid for overtime and allowed supper money. Some organizations during financial campaigns pay workers the regular hourly rate of pay for overtime and allow a reasonable amount for supper money. Careful planning and scheduling of office operations will ordinarily eliminate most overtime except in times of emergencies. Short periods of overtime such as keeping an employee a few minutes after the closing hour naturally are not paid for; indeed, when necessary, they are expected of him.

HOLIDAYS. In general the holidays customary in the community should be granted. New Year's Day, Washington's Birthday, Memorial Day, Independence Day, Labor Day, Thanksgiving Day, and Christmas seem to be generally observed. Many states have special legal holidays. In this respect the policy of the more progressive business houses rather than that of public offices and banks should be followed. The agency might follow the example of the Chamber of Commerce, which is very sensitive to business opinion. That

opinion is one of the facets of the community mind which we, too, have to regard.

Many agencies, however, are unable to close on legal holidays because of the exigency of the work. If some employees have to work a half or full day on holidays, they should be given time off on another day during the week. Special religious holidays which are requested by some staff members should be granted but deducted from annual leave.

LEAVES. Daily attendance records should be maintained in the office, as part of the personnel record of each employee.

(*a*) *Vacation or Annual Leave.* "As indicated above it is believed that because of the kind of responsibilities and duties involved in social work positions an adequate vacation allowance is desirable. A definite period of vacation with pay should be part of the remuneration for services performed and is due the regular employee whether he leaves the agency or continues in its employ. Vacation based on an accumulation of annual leave at the rate of 2⅙ working days for each month employed by the agency is recommended. A staff member begins to accumulate vacation credit with the first month's employment. If a worker leaves before taking vacation, he should be entitled to pay for the annual leave which he has earned."

The above provision applies to professional employees. It will vary with the vacation attitude of the community. Clerical employees usually receive shorter vacations than do the members of the professional staff. Several agencies that we know allow one business day (six business days to a week exclusive of holidays) for each month of service up to the beginning of the vacation period, plus one day for each year of service, up to 18 business days for clerical, stenographic, and accounting workers; one and one-half days for each month plus one day for each year of service up to 24 business days of leave for non-professional sub-executives; and at the rate of one month a year (26 business days), for the executive and professional staff.

(*b*) *Vacation Schedules.* The vacations or leaves of absence which are granted must be arranged on a definite schedule, so that the absence of workers may be spread out through the vacation period with the least possible hardship to the organization. Usually those workers who have been in the employ of the organization longest are given first choice in selecting vacation periods. The younger ones in point of service take what is left. The executive must so plan

the vacations that every essential operation of the agency may be continued without serious interruption. In some organizations the staff doubles up to take care of one another's duties, if summer work is light. In others, such as visiting nurse organizations, where summer sometimes means heavier work, extra employees must be brought in and definite provision made in the budget for their salaries. Workers in such agencies are sometimes required to take their vacations at other times of the year. At any rate, the problem of vacations must be carefully studied and handled so that the absence of employees will not handicap the work of the organization but so that each employee may have as nearly as possible the specific time he wishes.

(*c*) *Sick Leave.* In addition to time voluntarily taken and mutually agreed on for vacations and conferences, every social agency involuntarily loses a great deal of time in the course of a year through the sickness of its staff members. The cost of illness is great from the standpoint of the amount of time lost in productive labor while the employee is away, of the salary paid him which he has not earned, of the slowing up of his work if he attempts to do it when he is partly sick, and of the possible continued effect of sickness which may greatly reduce his efficiency over a long time. The Art Metal Construction Company found that each cold an employee had cost it $24, according to its report on Office Standards. If other illnesses than colds were included, this cost would be raised.

"Sick leave with pay should be allowed for a definite period per year sufficient to serve as adequate protection against the employee's incapacity even during the first year of his employment in the agency. It is recommended that sick leave of 24 working days with pay in any one year be allowed and that it be available to the employee as needed. The agency has the right to require a doctor's certificate for sickness beyond a specified number of days. The maximum amount which can be accumulated by an employee working continuously for the agency over a period of years should be generous and be at least 48 working days. In cases of prolonged illness it should be possible to extend the leave with pay; both length of service and the amount of previous sick leave should be taken into consideration for extension."

For the staff as a whole, a practical rule is to allow the same amount of sick leave as annual leave, with more in special cases if approved by the board.

"Agencies may wish to make provision for a separate allowance of leave with pay for necessary personal business; in such event only the employee's own illness should entitle him to sick leave."

(*d*) *Leave for Personal Business.* Leave with pay in case of a death or critical illness in the immediate family should be allowed on a limited basis. Leaves for personal business should be charged to vacation, or a salary deduction should be made.

(*e*) *Educational Leave.* "Opportunities for leaves of absence for study should be provided so that employees may develop skill and thus provide better service to the client and community.

"Educational leave plans should provide opportunities for study for all members of the staff in relation to their abilities and their need for completing their professional preparation and for keeping in touch with new developments in the field. Such a plan should be known to all staff members, and the criteria by which persons are selected for educational leave should be clearly indicated in the agency's manual.

"Such leave may be on a full-time basis for a part or all of an academic year; for part-time school attendance; or for taking a single course in a school of social work. Such leaves may be subsidized by the agency in whole or in part. Professional education is most effective when taken full-time in consecutive quarters or semesters for at least a year. This should be kept in mind in planning for educational leave.

"At the time the worker is granted leave, there should be a definite understanding as to the terms under which the leave is granted. If the worker on leave is considered an employee, he should have all the benefits which would accrue to him if working—sick leave, annual leave, seniority and retirement benefits, etc. Agencies having several students on scholarship should establish suitable personnel practices for students."

(*f*) *Conferences, Institutes, and Other Meetings.* "Time off with pay should be allowed for attendance at conferences, seminars, and institutes related to the employee's work. There should be opportunity from year to year to include all members of the professional staff. To the extent that it is possible, at least partial expenses should be provided by the agency."

Although social work conferences are usually of primary value to social workers and executives, it may pay the organization to send also to these conferences members of the business staff, such as chief clerks, office managers, and public relations directors. Those persons

thus may get the feel of social work and a perspective which will be valuable in their future relationship to the organization's social work program. Nor should the value of conferences and conventions on office management, purchasing, and public relations be forgotten in the case of these employees.

Social work conferences usually represent hard work and are anything but a vacation. On the other hand, they are generally of direct benefit to the individual himself through the professional knowledge and acquaintances he gains.

Traveling expenses should be available so that the executive or his representative may represent the agency at important state, regional, or national meetings—as, for example, expenses for attendance at a meeting to determine policies of his national organization.

Under other circumstances, however, it seems only fair to provide that those who attend conferences shall share the cost of attendance. In some agencies it is the practice for the organization to finance the expenses on a fifty-fifty basis. Another device is to pay travel expense plus a moderate per diem allowance. The sharing of expenses will often make it possible for more workers to attend than would be possible if the organization paid the full expense of a smaller number of employees.

Time off to attend state, regional, or national conferences must be arranged within the practical possibilities of release from the job.

A good way to make sure that each staff member gets something out of a conference is to require on his return a written report of the significance of the meeting he attended, the personal conferences he had on various phases of his work, the suggestions which he thought of value, and the benefits he feels he received from the conference.

(*g*) *Maternity Leave.* "Employees who have been on the staff for six months or longer may be granted maternity leave without pay for a definitely specified period of time, preferably at least six months and not more than one year. It may be possible and desirable to allow the individual to use all or part of accumulated sick leave for this purpose. It may be practical to establish a maternity subsidy to be based upon length of service to the agency and salary of the employee."

Personally we are not aware of any agencies which allow sick leave or maternity subsidy for having babies. We may come to it, though. Pregnancy in this post-war period seems the chief reason for labor turnover in our office. The trouble is, the girls seem to want to stay

home afterward and take care of their babies, and we think they ought to.

(*h*) *Military Leave.* "In the event of a national program of military service necessitating induction of employees, the agency should grant military leave for employees entering the armed forces and provide: (a) leaves of absence; (b) earned vacation salary; (c) specific cash settlement grants at the time of leaving, if cash settlements are given; (d) maintenance of *status quo* in agency insurance plans; (e) continuation of seniority rights; and (f) machinery for re-assignment at the earliest possible date after discharge from the service."

We hope it will not be necessary to consider military leave again in our lifetime or in that of any of our readers.

(*h*) *Sabbatical Leave.* "Sabbatical leaves increase continuity on the staff as well as bring new ideas to the staff. At the end of every six consecutive years of service, not interrupted by maternity leave or leave for study, it is good practice to allow members of the professional staff a sabbatical leave, for educational purposes, of at least three months with pay in addition to the annual vacation. Sabbatical leaves should be arranged in relation to the needs of the agency and the convenience of the worker and should be contingent on the worker's return to the agency for a period of one year."

We think sabbatical leave would be swell, but no one has offered it to us. Perhaps that is because we never stayed long enough on any of our jobs but one—new fields to conquer, and so on!

HEALTH SERVICE. In addition to the physical examinations for new employees already suggested, periodic health examinations by physicians, paid fully or in part by the organization, should be encouraged for all workers. It is generally admitted by progressive executives that social agencies might even demand that all employees take annual physical examinations. Actually, routine health examinations are now required by many business and industrial establishments, and an increasing number of social agencies is following this practice. All should.

Social workers themselves sometimes object, ostrich-like, to such examinations because of the fear of learning the existence of some condition of which they are unaware. Neither do they wish to have an adverse health report made to the organization for fear of losing their jobs as a result. The usual procedure in such examinations is to make the report direct to the worker so that he may follow the treatment recommended.

Definite arrangements may be made with physicians or clinics to

provide health examinations at low cost. If the organization pays the entire cost, the worker may be more willing to take the examination. On the other hand, if the employee has to share the cost, he may be more likely to follow the doctor's recommendations. If examinations are provided, they should not be merely routine checkups, which are likely to be superficial and of little value. Organizations connected with hospitals and clinics can without charge provide examinations as well as free medical service and hospital care upon the first sign of illness. One hospital executive reported that the loss of time through illness of workers was cut almost in half in one year because of the provision for clinical service for all his employees.

INSURANCE. Of vital concern to social agencies is the matter of employee insurance.

(*a*) *Workmen's Compensation.* "The agency should be responsible for seeing that the employee injured in line of duty receives the equivalent of his full salary for at least six months while incapacitated, and medical costs. If operating under Workmen's Compensation, the agency should supplement sufficiently to provide full salary and medical costs for six months. The agency has a continuing responsibility to the employee whose disability or need for medical care exceeds six months."

(*b*) *Group Plans for Hospital, Medical Care, and Life Insurance.* "Wherever possible the agency should assist employees to develop group medical and life insurance plans."

Wide use is being made by social agencies of the Blue Cross plans of group hospitalization and medical care. Often the community chest and council will serve as the central agency for promoting, recruiting, and collecting under these plans.

(*c*) *Retirement.* As already suggested, "the agency should provide for its employees, through the best available means, adequate protection for retirement. In general each year of service with any employer should bear its fair share of the cost of ultimate retirement. Both employer and employee should contribute to this fund. The employer should pay at least 50 per cent. Public employees should be covered by a public pension system. The annuity plan should provide for paid-up policies, including the agency's contribution, in the event of the employee's separation from the agency. In this connection, no service period should be required beyond the minimum required by the insurance company."

Social agencies should continue to work toward the inclusion of

their employees under the provisions of the Federal Social Security Act. The National Health and Welfare Retirement Association is so organized that adjustment can be made if the provisions of the Social Security Act are amended to include health and welfare agencies.

(*d*) *Accident and Liability for Car Operators.* "Employees who are required to operate an automobile as part of their work should be fully protected by the agency, and the agency should carry sufficient insurance to provide adequately for persons who may receive injury or loss at the hands of the employee while he is in pursuit of his duty. Such insurance should cover privately owned automobiles used by employees as well as agency-owned cars."

UNION MEMBERSHIP. Union membership is a matter for determination by employees. The executive and board should not oppose union organization and activity, so long as it does not take place on staff time. Both executive and board should be willing to meet with union representatives at any mutually agreeable time and to discuss any matters of mutual concern, with the purpose of securing common understandings and agreements. It is to be hoped that the personnel policies described in this chapter, if effectively applied, would leave little room for controversy between employee unions and social agency management.

BETTER PRACTICES, BETTER PERSONNEL. Social agencies which as far as practicable follow the above personnel policies, adapted to their own types of service and their own communities, will be able to attract and keep better employees and to render better service than would otherwise be possible.

QUESTIONS

1. If yours is a public agency, what laws, rules, or regulations cover its personnel procedures?

2. If yours is a private agency, what provisions are there in its constitution, bylaws, office manual, or other official documents regarding personnel?

3. Does your agency have a personnel committee? If so, what is its make-up and status?

4. Are the personnel practices of your agency written out in complete detail? If so, how do they compare with the proposals set forth in this chapter?

5. Are all positions within your agency classified as to kind and degree of responsibility?

6. Is there a written job description for each position?

7. Are written position specifications set up for each job?

8. Does your agency have a definite salary scale for each position?

9. Does your agency pay special expenses incidental to the performance of the job?

10. What perquisites, if any, are allowed in addition to salary and wages?

11. How are daily rates of pay computed?

12. How often are salaries paid?

13. What provision does your agency have for salary increases within the various job classifications?

14. Does it make promotions from one position to another within the organization whenever possible?

15. Are employees appointed to specific positions with duties and conditions of employment defined in writing?

16. Are assignments, responsibilities, and duties covered by written statements?

17. How are employees oriented on a new job?

18. How does the agency provide for staff development?

19. Does the staff participate in policy making and in the development of the agency program?

20. Are written standards of performance provided for all positions in the classification plan?

21. Are adequate personnel records kept?

22. Is the work of all employees periodically evaluated and rated on a participative basis?

23. Does your agency have a well-developed office manual? If so, what does it include?

24. What is done about a probationary period for new employees?

25. What is the status of temporary employees?

26. What tenure of employment is provided?

27. What weight is given to seniority in reference to lay-off, promotion, and re-hiring?

28. What is the basis of promotion?

29. What is the procedure in case of lay-off, demotion, dismissal, or resignation?

30. What provision, if any, is there for severance pay?

31. What provision does the agency have for retirement and superannuation, if any?

32. Does the agency have an appeals procedure? If so, what?

33. What are the hours of work?

34. Is any provision made for recesses or rest periods?

35. How is tardiness handled?

36. What is done about overtime?

37. What holidays are observed?

38. What is the provision in respect to vacation or annual leave?

39. What provision is there for sick leave?

40. What is done about leave for personal business?

41. What arrangements, if any, are made for educational leave?

42. How is attendance at conferences, institutes, and other meetings handled?

43. Is there any provision for maternity leave?

44. Is there any arrangement for sabbatical leave?

45. What health service, if any, is provided?

46. Are employees covered by workmen's compensation insurance?

47. Does the agency have in effect any group plan for hospital, medical care, and life insurance?

48. What provision, if any, is there for retirement insurance?

49. Are automobile operators covered for accident and liability?

50. What relations, if any, are there with unions?

51. How could the practices of the agency be improved in any of these respects?

Chapter XVII

Staff Management

MANAGEMENT A SPECIAL TECHNIQUE. All the foregoing policies for the effective relationship of the individual employee to his organization will fail unless the executive himself maintains satisfactory personal relationships with his whole staff, professional and nonprofessional, and is able to organize it in a fair and orderly way. He must delegate responsibility equitably and in accordance with the abilities of each worker. He must supervise the work to see that it is properly planned and carried out; train his staff members for increasing usefulness to the organization; try to secure their happy and willing participation in its activities; and, finally, enforce discipline when necessary—promptly, firmly, and justly. These are all factors in the maintenance of morale.

They are also important elements in the technique of administrative efficiency, as contrasted with that of the personal efficiency already described. An executive may be thoroughly efficient in doing his own direct work. Yet he cannot be a successful executive unless he can so organize and stimulate the work of his staff that the whole group operates as a co-operative, smoothly working team.

FREE REIN FOR THE EXECUTIVE. Succcessful management demands, of necessity, that the executive of a private agency be given a free rein by his board in fixing salaries within the budget and the approved salary classification plan; in developing and maintaining (within the general policies of the organization) sound personnel practices; and in dealing with the duties, required amounts and quality of service, and the relationship of employees to each other and to the organization as a whole. The executive should maintain an advisory relationship with the board and the administrative committees. He must, however, have freedom to execute in his own way and in the light of his own judgment the over-all task assigned to him and the policies which have been established. The constitution, the bylaws,

and the general policies of the organization usually give the social work administrator ample scope to exert all the leadership and managerial skill of which he is capable.

Public welfare agencies operate under tighter restrictions of law and regulation than private agencies, but the public official nevertheless has plenty of room in which to exercise the arts and techniques of competent management.

EXECUTIVE QUALITIES. The demands of administration bring out numerous qualities which the executive must possess for the adequate leadership of his staff. These attributes in general have already been discussed in Chapter VIII. Still, certain qualities important in staff management are worth special injunction here:

Courtesy—be as polite to the office boy as to the president of the organization.

A constructive and sympathetic imagination—put yourself in the place of your workers and understand the consideration due them.

Suggestibility—welcome suggestions from staff members and, when suggestions are made, do something definite about them.

Accessibility—always be accessible to employees and willing to talk over their problems and hear their complaints about conditions, real or fancied.

Temperateness—handle difficulties by discussion rather than arbitrary action.

Fairness—never show favoritism. Make adjustments to individual needs. Try to give each employee an opportunity to attain his legitimate goal in the agency and in his profession. Give your workers credit for work well done and realize that enthusiasm is stimulated by praise. Assume the blame for employees' mistakes, for you chose the employees and you supervise them.

Kindness—be gracious toward all employees. This attitude should be matched by the manifest expectation of high standards of performance, lest the kindness be presumed upon.

Pleasantness—use a pleasant tone of voice, never a harsh or accusatory inflection.

Ease and informality—avoid the appearance of "chilled steel efficiency." Give the impression not of a boss but of a leader and collaborator in a joint task to which each is giving all possible ability and experience and in which each has an interest.

Reserve—guard against too great an intimacy with your staff. Avoid idle chaffing and undue flippancy. Exercise a warm reserve.

The executive should be a reliable example which the staff mem-

bers may find it well to emulate in greater or less degree as they in turn progress toward executive responsibility. If the executive conducts himself in the ways enjoined here, the workers will reciprocally express the same attitudes and qualities; mutual good will and enthusiastic co-operation will become the general relationships in the agency from top to bottom.

One executive told us he thought the greatest compliment ever paid to him occurred when he left a job in one city to go to another —a scrubwoman in the building where his office had been cried when she knew he was going to leave, because he had always been pleasant to her. Scrubwomen are not the only people who like to be treated as human beings.

The principles of successful administration can be boiled down to the Golden Rule in modern terms: "Do unto your employee as you would have him do unto you and thou shalt inherit the kingdom of an effective organization."

PLAN OF ORGANIZATION. These qualities of effective personal relations with the staff must be exerted by the executive in terms of an adequate plan of organization. This will be a valuable help in making sure that each function of the agency is performed rapidly, smoothly, and without confusion.

(*a*) *Plan for Function, Not Personality.* The organization of a social agency from the point of view of staff assignments should be worked out not on a basis of personality but on that of the work to be performed. Moral: do not change the job to fit the person; get the person to fit the job (unless you are making a place for a genius —who is not likely to turn up).

Too often, as an agency grows, employees take over new responsibilities without much regard to their ability or to the general principle of specialization. Then, when the executive becomes aware of the situation, he may find three people each doing a third of three different jobs. Jobs should be so rearranged that each is handled by only one person. The orderly executive will carefully analyze all the functions of his agency, including its social service and its business administration.

(*b*) *Chart of Organization.* In order to plan adequately the relation of the staff to its work, the executive should draw up an organization chart. This should show the main functions to be performed and should indicate in writing the lines of responsibility and the titles of those responsible. Complete and effective detail for the chart would involve the job descriptions which have already been

discussed, as well as written standard practice instructions for each job. Outlines of the main lines of responsibility should be given in the office manual, which will be discussed later.

(*c*) *Break Up the Staff into Manageable Groups.* In preparing a chart and plan of organization, the executive must bear in mind the fundamental principle of having small and therefore manageable groups. No supervisor should be responsible for more people than can be handled without undue loss of personal contact.

For example, in an office with twenty employees—typists, clerks, and accountants—an office manager would probably do his work better if the group were divided into three sections—one of typists, one of clerks, and one of accountants—each of them with a section chief; then, if all worked under one supervisor the office manager could work with and through the section chiefs, who in turn would work intimately with the employees assigned to them. When the office force had to be expanded in time of emergency, such as a financial campaign, the section chiefs would have sufficient experience in management to handle considerably larger groups without any strain on the fundamental practices of accuracy and speed of performance.

(*d*) *Clearly Defined Lines of Authority.* Effective organization requires clearly defined lines of authority, so that each employee may know just what is his job. Good administration also requires division of work according to function. In that way the workers, individually and by groups, may specialize according to the types of work they can do best.

A sound plan requires simple organization. Competent department or section heads, with initiative and skill which entitle them to the co-operation of those they supervise, are necessary. A good plan also requires that organization charts shall be kept up to date by reference to actual conditions in the agency and that job descriptions and standard practice instructions shall be continually revised to correspond to the agency's actual practices.

Furthermore, the executive must have a thorough knowledge of the work of the organization, continually refreshed by detailed knowledge of what is going on. Thus only can he see the interrelationship of all parts of the work and organize in terms of the whole job and the entire group of employees at his disposal.

(*e*) *Mutual Interchange between Departments.* Integration of plan and action between departments and sections is essential, especially in departmentalized organizations. If one department be-

comes interested only in its own work, the organization itself may lose. Making "water-tight compartments" of departments and sections should be avoided. Although responsibility must be subdivided, the executive must be sure that each department sees its relationship to the work of all others and that services and workers are exchanged when necessary to carry on the work of the agency as a whole. Division of work within the organization should not be so rigid that an employee will refuse to do a piece of work because it is not usually required of him. On the other hand, each ordinary task should be charted and described, and the responsibility for it should be carefully placed. This is best achieved through staff conferences. In these the executives and sub-executives should plan together and agree upon the course to be followed.

DELEGATION OF RESPONSIBILITY. A carefully worked-out plan of organization must be activated by the continuous delegation of responsibility by the executive.

(*a*) *Decentralization Necessary*. Manifestly, except in the very smallest agency, no executive can do all the work himself. He must learn to give staff members work they can do as well as he can (or even better). Thus he will free himself for those things which are his particular responsibility and for which no one else is so well qualified.

Many venerable business slogans attest the validity of the principle of delegation: "Plan your work and work your plan"; "Organize, deputize, and supervise"; "What is everybody's business is nobody's business"; "Never do yourself what you can get someone else to do for you." As one experienced executive told us, "Knowledge of how to select personnel to whom tasks can be assigned and then really assigning them is half the executive's job."

Howard S. Braucher, President of the National Recreation Association, wrote us recently as follows:

> I have myself come to believe more and more, in theory, in as complete decentralization as possible. A member of our family has worked in the Aluminum Company of America. I have been impressed in that company with the very complete decentralization—with the attempt to get individuals way down the line to make just as many decisions as possible and to show just as much initiative as possible.
>
> After workers have received training and have learned the background of an organization and have the necessary experience, the larger the measure of freedom that can be given to the individual worker the better it is. This, of course, does make it of the greatest importance that workers be carefully chosen.

Delegation of authority should be in accordance with the plan already set up for the organization. If that is no longer feasible, the plan should be changed (except in the case of emergency assignments). If the boss ignores the plan, how can the staff be expected to observe its diluted dictates? Further, the work delegated should be within the competence of the person made responsible for it, or else of such a nature that through doing it he can attain the ability to handle it.

(*b*) *Work of the Executive.* In each organization there are some things which the executive necessarily must do himself if they are to be done satisfactorily. There may be influential board members whom the executive, rather than a staff member, should see. In a case work organization there may be clients who because of their particular difficulties can better be handled by the executive himself, with his special background and skill, than by anyone else. There are plans which the executive must work out and develop because no one else has the broad knowledge and wide experience necessary for their preparation. Nevertheless the staff should be called in to discuss these plans when he has done his utmost in preparation.

The executive, however, should avoid delegating only petty details to his staff, with the result that he overburdens himself with things which he fancies no one else can do. This attitude works an injustice on himself because it does not keep him for his major tasks. It is unfair to the organization because important work is often delayed in the neck of the executive bottle. It is unfair to the staff members, for they do not get the experience which is necessary for their growth.

GIVING ORDERS. In the delegation of responsibility the executive of a modern social agency is not like the fictional "snappy" business executive who each morning gives curt instructions for the day to a line of humbly waiting assistants.

(*a*) *A Matter of Mutual Consent.* The executive's method should be rather that of suggestion and question in accordance with the advice of the late Mary P. Follett:[1]

> . . . his suggestions are so subtle that they are not recognized as such and the planning seems to come from the staff as a whole. We are beginning to think of the leader not as a man who is able to assert his individual will and to get others to follow him, but as one who knows how to relate different wills in a group so that they have driving force. Even

[1] "Some Discrepancies in Leadership, Theory and Practice," Chapter XVI in H. C. Metcalf's *Business Leadership.* Isaac Pitman & Sons, New York, 1931.

> if one man did know enough to make all the decisions, he could not get any possible "following" unless his followers are convinced; and you can convince them in only one way—by allowing them to share in your experience. . . . The leader tends not to persuade men to follow his will; he shows them what it is necessary for them to do in order to meet their responsibilities, a responsibility which has been explicitly defined. . . . In the best modern practice the leader is the man who can show that the order is integral to the situation. It carries weight because it is the demand of the situation. The word "order" is being used less and less. In scientifically managed plants few orders are given in the old sense of that word—that of arbitrary commands. We have method sheets, instruction cards. What is called the work order is given in some plants by the dispatch clerk. . . . Orders are coming to be considered as the outcome of the requirements of the situation, as information in regard to standards, as training in methods. A leader gets an order followed, first, because men do really want to do things in the right way, if he can show them that way, and secondly because he, too, is obeying. Sincerity more than aggressiveness is a quality of leadership.

Orders should never be arbitrary—never say "Do this." Rather, say, "Please do this," or "I wonder if this wouldn't be a good plan," or "What do you think of doing it in this way?"

(*b*) *Written Orders.* The assignment of work should be stated as clearly as possible, so that there may be no misunderstanding as to the exact responsibility of each staff member for his part of the task. As has already been suggested in the discussion of executive efficiency, it is wise for the executive to put in writing all staff agreements and all instructions or orders of any consequence. The typed memorandum should be initialed to indicate its correctness. This procedure should make misunderstandings impossible. It provides a basis for correction if directions are not clear. It enables the staff member to carry out without confusion a project for which several days may be needed. It stimulates precise and prompt performance; the worker knows that the executive has an accurate basis for a check-up on the work in the flimsy but potent shape of a carbon copy of the instructions.

The executive need not always give instructions in writing. Surely verbal instructions can be given on simple matters. As in the case of a beefsteak, formal writing of instructions or memoranda of conversation may be overdone just as it may be underdone; one hardly knows which is worse. The realistic executive should look beyond the mere formula which prescribes written instructions, to the fundamental principle that their purpose is to make sure that the work is done exactly as planned. The executive should put his

instructions in writing only when that purpose will be served. Otherwise there is the danger that the staff will spend most of its time in writing memoranda rather than in settling matters in face-to-face conferences or going ahead without conversation—difficult as such non-verbalized action may seem.

(c) General vs. Special Orders. Distinction should be made between general orders, which cover the working of the whole organization, and individual written orders and memoranda which cover specific operations. Frank E. Chapman evidently had both kinds in mind when he said in his excellent book on hospital organization:[2]

> Orders by word of mouth are subject at all times to misinterpretation. Such orders are easily forgotten, which is a condition which cannot be allowed to exist in orders affecting the vital performance of a single department or of interdepartmental performance. It is therefore suggested that a scheme of written orders be developed. Bound and printed orders are subject to the very definite criticism that they are not easily corrected and that shortly after a set of rules and regulations has been printed a certain number of them become obsolete. It is suggested, therefore, that an order system be developed in loose-leaf form. Such a system is flexible to the greatest degree and permits of any order being cancelled or modified by subsequent orders without destroying the content of the order book as a whole.

General orders may be posted on a bulletin board and initialed by each one who has read and assimilated them. This device is useful for an agency with a number of volunteer workers who come in at odd times—such as a Red Cross Chapter. Some staff member should serve as editor for the staff bulletin board, to handle all material to be posted there and to remove it when it has served its purpose.

(d) Outline of Assigned Tasks for a Staff. For making clear the delegation of responsibility and for carrying out a program of work in connection with a specific problem, such as a membership campaign, the following plan has been found excellent: Across the top of a piece of paper, leaving some space at the left, write the names of the staff members so that each heads a column. Down the left side list the various projects to which the organization is committed. Opposite each project put a cross under the name of the staff member responsible for it. In this way the entire program of work can be seen, and responsibility can be definitely allocated and visualized.

[2] *Hospital Organization and Operation*, p. 24. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1924.

(*e*) *Use of Order Forms.* For certain kinds of orders it may be helpful to have a definite form for use by all the members of the organization. The form is filled out in duplicate for each job. One copy is held by the person who issues the order; the other, by the person who is to carry out the task. This work order sheet gives a description of the job, the number of items required (as, for example, the quantity of a mimeographed letter), the kind of material to be used, and the date when the job is to be finished. The supervisor who receives the order and distributes the work writes on the sheet the name of the staff member assigned to the job, the amount of time consumed, and the time of completion. This order sheet is returned with the completed work to the person who ordered it for his O.K. and for suggestions as to ways in which the work might be improved. The O.K.'d original is then returned to the supervisor. Use of a work order form makes instructions on routine jobs specific, obviates delays and running back and forth for additional information, and prevents errors in performance and recriminations regarding them.

(*f*) *Latitude of Individuality.* In spite of the techniques of giving orders and fixing responsibility, the executive should be careful to allow for individual performance. It should always be understood that, unless a contrary agreement is made later, instructions shall be carried out as given. On the other hand, the person who receives them may make suggestions for their improvement either verbally or in a written memorandum. Any suggestions for change in written orders, if adopted, should be confirmed in writing. Then if any question arises regarding departure from the original plan there will be written authority for the deviation. The executive should utilize not only the mechanical ability of the person to whom the instructions are given but also all his experience and all his personality which evidence themselves in his correction and improvement of any process or any plan. Yet it is best to put it in writing!

SUPERVISION. Although orders should be given in as highly participative a way as possible, the performance of those orders still has to be supervised. The Latin root of our word "supervision" means literally "looking over." It describes very well the purpose and method of supervision in which the executive or anyone else responsible for subordinate workers "looks over" what they do.

(*a*) *Purposes of Supervision.* Among the purposes of supervision suggested by executives in various fields of social work are the following:

To see that work which has been agreed upon is carried out in accordance with the instructions and agreements.

To educate and to develop the worker himself so that he will need less supervision in the future.

To assist the supervisor in keeping a grasp on the work being done and to aid him in developing new ideas and plans.

To bring out the best service from the worker of which he is capable.

To evaluate the capacity and performance of staff members.

To produce harmony and teamwork between employees.

To discuss existing faults in the plan of work so as to encourage a thoughtfully critical attitude on the part of the individual staff members with a view to discovering every possible improvement in both the plan and method being used.

To maintain and develop standards of performance.

To produce orderliness in procedure.

To transmit the inspiration of the leader to the rank and file of the organization.

To get at weak spots in performance before they become serious, and to eliminate them.

To make sure that if the measures which have been planned for attainment of the objectives of the organization fall short of the desired results, other measures may be undertaken to make the attainment of those goals possible.

To aid in developing in the worker an understanding of the philosophy and principles of the organization.

These opinions indicate the importance of adequate and thoroughgoing supervision by the executive of the organization, whether one or one hundred are on his staff. He is responsible for results; therefore he must so supervise the work, either directly or through delegation, that he knows those results are being attained as far as is humanly possible.

(*b*) *Philosophy and Technique of Supervision.* To be effective, supervision must be more than just a "looking over." The executive or sub-executive must have a definite philosophy and technique of supervision, just as he should for every other phase of his work. The philosophy would be that of participation. The technique would be that of utilizing and developing, as far as possible, the capacities of the person under supervision.

The good executive will make his supervision almost imperceptible. He will help his staff to grow by the experience it can gain through his stimulating service as a teacher of right methods and right attitudes, rather than through his performance as "director of specific processes." He will give each staff member every possible opportunity to carry out the details of responsibility in his own way. The best supervision, after the job has been outlined, is often by "absent treatment." In this the employee is left free to work out his own solution of the assigned duty, within the limits of the written order, the standard practice instructions for the job, and the agency policies.

The executive should carefully inspect the work of his employees and know by personal observation what they are doing. Yet he should not be a busybody, prowling around to uncover evidences of inefficiency. He should develop in his staff the idea that he is there as helper and adviser rather than as dictator. He should encourage the staff members to consult him on questions of policy and on problems which they cannot handle. He should expect them to report to him progress in the tasks which have been assigned—perhaps in weekly conferences, or more frequently if they wish. He should comment constructively on what has been done, asking the worker how he thinks it might have been done better rather than overwhelming him with objections. The stimulating administrator will try to make each staff member see the relation of his work to that of each other worker. In case of friction, the executive will suggest to those involved that each one endeavor to get the others' points of view and to see the relation of each to the organization as a whole.

(*c*) *A Varied Procedure.* In supervision, the executive will have in mind the personalities, strengths, and weaknesses of his staff members. He will urge some to more strenuous endeavors, will pointedly criticize others, and will warmly encourage still others. In some cases, instead of criticizing, he will suggest that the erring member read significant books and report his ideas on how these ideas might be applied to the organization. This reading may suggest the answers to difficulties which the worker knows exist but of which the astute executive is apparently unaware.

As far as possible the executive will collaborate with committee chairmen yet leave as much initiative as is possible to the sub-executives in working with these chairmen. For example, although the chairman will be expected to report to the board of directors, the secretary of the committee will be expected to discuss its plans with

the executive. Thus the executive will make sure that the committee plans are worked out in accordance with the total plan of the organization.

The executive will be willing to see a subordinate make a mistake (if it is not too serious), so that he may learn not to make the same error again. The administrator may sometimes risk temporary failure in some phases of the agency's work for the sake of the development of the person to whom the work has been assigned. The supervisor will also encourage staff members to think that ideas are their own, even though he had suggested them perhaps at some remote time in the past. He will give his subordinates public commendation for the creation and execution of these ideas. The worker thus supervised will gain confidence, competence, and skill in advancing the service program of the agency.

All this does not mean that the executive should let the work of his organization go "at sixes and sevens." On the contrary, he should follow up closely those staff members who have jobs to do. He will be prompt in assigning responsibility when a decision has been made, and will be continuous in his supervision even though that supervision is light. The staff member must realize that if his work is not up to expectation the executive will be aware of it and will want to know the reason for his inadequacy.

(*d*) *First-hand Information.* Although the executive need not supervise every detail of the work, it is a good plan for him to make tours of inspection, covering every department of his organization, at unexpected times. In the office this inspection might include such matters as its appearance and the details of methods by which its operations are performed. Random samples of procedure are sound statistically if done often enough. They correspond to the practice of the telephone companies which do not give continuous supervision to each operator but are able to arrive at a fair average estimate of efficiency by taking frequent samples of the work.

Inspection has a double value. It keeps the executive informed of the quality of work being done. It also keeps up that quality through knowledge that inspection may come at any time. Able workers will be glad of a chance to show what they are doing. Conversely, ineffective workers may be prodded to increased efficiency by the knowledge that the "boss" may be watching them when they least expect it.

As part of the policy of "visiting around" the organization, it is wise for the executive, when possible, to hold conferences with his

employees regarding their work at their own desks or, in districted organizations, in their own district offices. "On the spot" conferences are less formal than when the worker is called to the executive's office. Further, they give the executive a chance to see how the employee is carrying on his work in his own environment.

(e) The Supervisor as Teacher. The task of the supervisor (whether he be executive or sub-executive) as described by an experienced executive has much in common with education:

The supervisor must be teacher, adviser, and friend. Unless he approaches his job of supervision with both sympathy and courage, he is apt to create resentment or to prolong bad habits which require changing. Many supervisors unfortunately consider supervision merely a conference period to discuss the worker's problems. Unless out of these experiences are evolved practical technique and helpful suggestions, the supervisor misses the most important need of this contact. Supervisors sometimes fail to take the time to understand the worker under supervision and to correct wrong procedure by careful explanation and suggestion. Hard-pressed supervisors often hurry their jobs. This is the most serious handicap to good supervision.

(f) Methods of Supervision. According to other executives, specific methods of supervision of staff procedure, both professional and clerical, may include "summary reports, checking up progress in relation to the objectives of the program; study by the supervisor of special reports, literature, etc., produced by the worker" and various others:

The supervisor should sit in on at least one committee meeting conducted by the supervised worker; also attend some public meetings organized by the worker.

The great need is to have work supervised by a person who is himself competent in the field. He must have experience in the field and understand the technique.

Study tendencies to see what is back of them. The greatest problem of supervision is to keep a balance between too much involvement in detail and too great remoteness from detail to know what is really happening, as well as a balance between expressing final authority and the democratic expression of those who are really doing the day's work.

Inspire the workers as far as possible with a sense of the bigness of the job.

Systematize the work and promote conditions which make for harmony in execution. Establish safeguards at known points of weakness.

Invite criticism from the public as well as from the membership of the organization, so that the worker may be made aware of the public

reaction toward his work. This reaction should be sympathetically interpreted by the executive so that the worker will not be discouraged by lack of understanding on the part of the public but may be stimulated to meet the criticism.

As a stimulus to all members of the staff, employ a qualified person from outside the organization to study the work and to compare it with the work as carried on ten years ago.

Require each executive to write out each week his plan for the week and to submit it to his superior officer. At the end of the week require him to turn in a written report on what he has done. Have this report checked against the plan for the week in regular conference with the executive.

All these are elements in the technique of adequate and effective supervision as applied by executives and sub-executives.

INSTRUCTION OF WORKERS. It has already been suggested that supervision is closely akin to education, and that the training as well as the supervision of workers—both old and new—is part of the problem of staff management in a social agency.

(*a*) *A Duty for the Whole Staff*. Teaching is not a function of the executive and the supervisor alone. In a sense, it is a responsibility of every member of the staff, since each aids every other member to do his work in the best possible way.

This practice of mutual learning is a function of the total attitude of the whole staff. It involves the spiritual values and aspirations of the organization. Further, it requires a realization on the part of each staff member that unless all are helped to work to the best of their abilities the staff and the organization will fail to attain those goals which they have united in settling.

Thus each worker, as McCandless says,[8] "should be a student of his own job, an understudy of the man above, and a coacher or instructor of the man or men just below him." The executive should be responsible for training others to take his place, if necessary. In turn, each worker should have some responsibility for training those below him in rank. In consequence, no matter what happens, the organization should always be able to carry on satisfactorily the work of the individual who is temporarily or permanently away from his work.

Growth is the rule of life and of successful organization. Directed growth through training is as important for the staff of a social agency as it is for a child in his formative years.

[8] James W. McCandless, *Association Administration*, p. 163. Association Press, New York, 1925.

(*b*) *Training New Workers.* Training should begin with the entry of a new employee into the organization. He should be introduced to his fellow workers. The equipment he is to use should be explained. He should be shown the various facilities for personal comfort which are available. This "orientation course" should be extensive enough to allow the newcomer to understand the workings of the organization and the many details which are taken for granted by the experienced workers. The background detail to which he will be exposed will depend upon his immediate and ultimate responsibility in the organization.

Following is a good procedure with a new employee who has professional or executive responsibilities: "Introduce him to board members, committee members, and other citizens whom he should know. Have him read a history of the organization. Give him data on the history and nature of the community in which he is to work. Help him to make desirable community contacts if he is a stranger. Give him the office manual to read, to study, and to keep."

If there is no one in the organization specifically responsible for training new workers, they should be "trained on the job" by fellow workers, especially in clerical work. It is often a good plan to assign a new employee to an older one who will act as a "big sister" or "big brother," "show him the ropes," and instruct him about what to do and how to do it. Be sure that he reads and retains, convenient for reference, a copy of the written standard practice instructions for his job.

Many large organizations have special courses of orientation and instruction for new employees, as well as special supervisors for their work.

No matter what course is taken, however, the organization should make sure that every worker is thoroughly familiar with all the processes for which he is responsible and with all the resources in the way of equipment which he may utilize in doing his work more effectively. He should learn, too, the relationship of his job to the purposes and practices of the organization, to other jobs with which his is related, and to the human beings whom his agency serves.

(*c*) *Continuous Education.* After the worker has been shown his duties, his education may proceed with greater or less formality. Staff conferences in which all qualified workers participate may afford valuable education on the progress and methods of the organization.

The executive may stimulate his staff members to read current

literature and books in the special fields of their interest and may ask them to report their reading at staff meetings. During these meetings the executive may discuss significant articles he has seen in social work and business magazines, asking his staff to read them and report on their possible application to their own work or that of the organization. One executive said that each month he bought a small amount of reading matter—mostly pamphlets, but including a few books—and made it available to all members of the staff. The public library was used for additional material.

The social agency may have its own library or subscribe to magazines in its field. Reading may be encouraged by dangling tempting bits as bait at staff meetings and by distributing the magazines and books on a definite schedule. For example, in one family society a staff committee on literature, under the leadership of a widely read social worker, collected a library, reported from time to time on new books of special value to social workers, and discussed these books at the staff meetings. Books and periodicals in the public library may be brought to the staff's attention through the staff bulletin or through reviews and bibliographies published in the bulletin of the local organization. The public library may be persuaded to prepare and make available a bibliography of books in the field of the agency, to purchase others on request, and to furnish monthly memoranda of accretions in its collection. The staff may be organized into study groups which are held responsible for specific courses of reading and discussion. The time and attention given to reading along lines of professional and vocational advancement are well worth while in enabling the employee to apply to his work increasingly broad and deep knowledge of principles and practice.

Yet more than mere reading is necessary. The organization may encourage staff members who have not completed their professional training to take night courses in schools of social work or may give them time off during the day for such courses. The agency should also encourage workers to attend conferences and institutes, as has already been suggested. Such attendance may be part of a regular program of professional advancement. In addition to the courses that may be taken during office hours, many social and office workers take evening courses in the extension departments of universities. It may sometimes be desirable for the organization to pay part of the expense of a course (when satisfactorily completed) if it will add to the efficiency of the worker. Additional formal instruction is usually well worth while if the employee takes it seriously and gives

some assurance that he will remain with the organization for a length of time sufficient to justify the amount of "time off" granted and any expense incurred by the agency in sharing the cost.

Training workers, however, need not be carried on only outside the organization. Many agencies give specific in-service training courses. This training may consist merely of selecting definite tasks which will have educational value for the worker, assigning them as projects to be worked out, carefully supervising their performance, and then discussing that performance with the student in the light of the lessons learned. From such informal education, training courses may range through various degrees of intensity to collaboration with schools of social work whose students carry on their supervised field work in the social agency and are for all functioning purposes members of its staff. Discussion of professional social work training, however, does not come within the scope of this book. Less formal training may be observed in those social agencies where, once a week perhaps, the executive in charge of the junior staff members meets with them and discusses case work technique, ethics, or other phases of the work. Experienced executives warn against having too many workers in training, lest the quality of the work suffer through lack of trained personnel sufficient to give substance to the service of the agency.

Practically all the methods of training which have been discussed, except the more elaborate ones, are adaptable to the clerical as well as to the professional staff. The application of these methods and the intensity of their use will depend on the community resources available, the training and experience of the workers themselves, the complexity of the work for which they are to be trained, and the energy and time which the executive has for training.

One fundamental point remains: Regardless of the measures followed, the social agency has a continuous responsibility for training each staff member in every possible way to become more proficient as a technician on his particular job, more effective as a co-operator with other staff members, and more serviceable through an understanding of the organization's aims and ideals and of the problems of the community which it is created to serve. A "learning" organization will with increasing adequacy meet the challenge of effective service presented to it by its community.

PARTICIPATION OF STAFF IN MANAGEMENT. The policy of persistently training all employees throughout the course of their working relationship with the agency is without doubt a vital factor in effec-

tive organization, delegation, and supervision previously discussed. One more step in management is necessary if the organization is to be an effective, unified whole under the leadership of the executive. That step is participation. It means, in relation to the staff, expression of that fundamental philosophy of administration which is discussed in the second chapter of this book. Participation is more than democracy, more than teamwork. It means the sharing by all employees, as far as possible, in all the decisions made. It means that the voices of all the workers may be heard in the determination of all those conditions and methods of work in which they may be competent to share.

(*a*) *The Staff and the Board.* Participation may extend so far that the professional staff is authorized to elect representatives to meet with the board of directors. Indeed, in some group work agencies with a definite membership there has been experimentation in the election of representatives of club groups to the board. This may be an excellent device for securing in the widest possible sense the feeling of "belonging" and the realistic action desirable in respect to the service program of the agency. That point of view is interestingly and effectively expressed by Ordway Tead in his *Democratic Administration*,[4] in which he suggests that the board of directors be composed of representatives of various groups which have distinctive outlooks and desires—including the members of the agency, the managerial and professional staff, and the office and housekeeping staffs.

Nevertheless, in most social agencies which deal with a shifting group of clients or patients without any cohesiveness or mutual concern beyond the immediate service rendered, specific representation would seem impractical and ineffective. Our own observation of staff attendance at agency boards is that exercise by staff members of the right to vote might prove embarrassing. As technical consultants, however, qualified staff members can often be helpful.

Generally the executive is the link between the board of directors, the staff, and the persons served. From time to time he may consider it desirable for responsible members of the staff to meet with the board, to explain their work, and to share in discussions in which their technical experience will be of value.

A more practical kind of participation would seem to be that in which each staff member shares in the discussion of all possible phases of the work within the scope of the staff member's responsi-

[4] Association Press, New York, 1945.

bility. The executive then transmits the policies agreed upon to the board of directors for their action and consideration and reports back to the staff the action taken by the board. In some organizations, however, it is desirable for especially experienced staff members always to meet with the board as technical advisers to the executive and to the board. In such cases the staff members serve in their professional capacities rather than as representatives of the staff. The relationship between the executive and his staff in participative management seems to be a different matter which may be developed as a definite procedure of executive technique.

(*b*) *Meetings of Department Heads.* The operation of the principle of participation may range all the way from conferences of heads of departments to meetings of the whole clerical and professional staff. Various kinds of group meetings would occupy an intermediate position.

Almost every agency of any size with a departmental organization has, usually every week, regular meetings of its department heads. These meetings serve as a clearinghouse for the plans of each department. They clear up conflicts between departments. They encourage exchange of suggestions between sub-executives. Such meetings make sure that, so far as executive control is concerned, the whole organization is proceeding on the basis of well-understood plans mutually agreed upon.

In some organizations, such as the Boy Scouts and Girl Scouts, the YMCA's and YWCA's, seasonal conferences of sub-executives and executives are held for one or more days; at these conferences the activities of the previous period are reviewed and criticized, the successes and failures are analyzed, and the results are applied to the work which lies ahead. Plans for each department or each activity are thoroughly discussed. All agreements are written down as a basis for the activities of the whole organization during the coming season, in terms of calendars which may be presented for each department and co-ordinated for the organization as a whole. Such conferences are often held away from the office, in summer camps or other remote places where there will be no interference.

(*c*) *Meetings of Staff Groups.* In addition to the regular meetings of department heads, organizations with professional staffs usually hold meetings of their social workers every week or two. Often these meetings are presided over by different workers in turn. The program for each meeting may be prepared by a staff committee of two or three. The committee strives to present programs in the form

of discussions or debates on problems which are disturbing some of the workers at that particular time. Such meetings may be of great value in promoting professional technique, in developing the social work policies of the organization, and in giving every worker a feeling of worth in its service.

Obviously there may be other kinds of group meetings—for instance, those of clerical workers, publicity workers, and so on—to take up matters of concern peculiar to the group and to prepare plans in terms of the experience of the group. Sometimes the meetings may be entirely informal and yet valuable. For example, when a new office procedure is to be undertaken, the supervisor may call together the workers involved in order to discuss the best way to carry on that procedure. Their decision, reduced to writing, becomes the standard practice instruction which applies until a better method is evolved.

(d) Giving the Whole Staff a Share. All these measures seem but partial steps toward the complete and creative participation of all workers in the plans and activities of the organization, by actually giving the whole rank and file a share in management.

For example, one organization with about 25 employees of all kinds developed a thoroughgoing plan of committee representation. Every member of the staff, whether professional or clerical, was called a junior member until he had served six months. Then he automatically became a senior member. The importance of this event was emphasized by his public introduction as a senior member at the monthly meeting of the whole staff and by the publication of his name in the weekly bulletin sent to all board and committee members of the organization and to the staff as well.

In that organization all senior members voted by secret ballot for members of three committees of three persons each—a program committee, a personnel relations committee, and an office conditions committee. These committees were concerned with the internal affairs of the organization which affected all employees. Elections were held every four months, so that new senior members of the staff could be given a chance to vote and to share in committee activities. Two ballotings were made in each election. The first was a primary election in which all senior members were listed on the ballot. The voters wrote down after the staff member's name the number of the committee on which they wished him to serve. The six persons (twice the number to be elected, because the members of each committee served in staggered one-year terms) who had the highest

number of nominations were then listed on a final ballot under the names of the committees for which they were nominated. All the senior members of the staff then voted for the one member of each committee whom they wished to elect.

The program committee planned as it saw fit for the monthly staff meetings and for the staff picnics and parties held quarterly or oftener as the committee and staff thought desirable. The committee on office conditions considered such matters as ventilation, rest room, eating lunches in the office, and so forth. The personnel relations committee considered problems of tardiness, absence, vacation, schedule, time of dismissal of office force (in relation to congestion of bus and street car traffic), recesses, and so on.

The rules of the organization, worked up and adopted by the staff as a whole, provided that the executive on approval of a committee might meet with it but that he need not do so—and could not unless the committee wished him to. Recommendations of the committees were submitted for ratification to the cabinet, which was made up of executives of the organization. If approved by the cabinet, these recommendations were referred back to the staff for action; if not approved, back to the committee for reconsideration, then to the cabinet, and so back to the staff. If the staff overruled the cabinet, the proposals might be referred to the board of directors of the organization for such final action as might be taken.

This plan had the advantage of giving the whole personnel a sense of participation in those relationships and conditions which affected them, as well as a feeling of responsibility for co-operation in the decisions made. Obviously much of the potentiality for success in such a plan lay in the executive himself. He felt that, if he were unable to persuade the staff of the wisdom of a course he recommended, he should be willing to have the staff take its contrary proposals to the board. He was endeavoring to make his staff a democratic, responsible, co-operative, participating unit. The actual working of the plan seemed to justify his expectations.

Some plan of committee organization, either through subcommittees or through monthly or more frequent staff meetings, might well be adopted by any organization. This would be on the presumption that the members of the clerical force, although doing a kind of work different from that of the professional workers, nevertheless have a direct interest in the conditions of work, and that on successful performance of their tasks the success of the organization very largely depends.

(*e*) *Effective Staff Meetings.* Among the suggestions for successful staff meetings which have been made by various executives are the following:

Have the executive conduct the meeting so as to secure a really creative discussion of the problems presented, in which all members of the staff participate. Make sure that executives do not dominate the program. Have reports from chairmen of staff committees. Have the whole staff discuss the monthly programs of each department, plus a discussion of annual programs at considerable length. Bring up policies of organization which affect the staff and get their advice. Have an inspirational prelude such as the reading of a poem or selection from appropriate literature chosen by the program committee which handles that meeting. Discuss changes in the office manual.

Have representatives of co-operating organizations or of interesting community movements meet with the staff. Have remarks by newly elected officers of the organization or chairmen of committees, who tell how they think the staff can help in carrying out the projects for which they are responsible.

Present agenda for each meeting in advance so that the staff may be prepared exactly as a committee should be prepared for meetings. Write minutes of the meeting as well as of meetings of committees of the organization and have them posted on the bulletin board or summarized in the staff bulletin if there is such a publication.

Introduce the new members of the staff. Present significant bits of interpretation of the work of the organization—such, for example, as a motion picture film prepared for the financial campaign. Have members of the staff, including clerical workers doing typical pieces of work, tell what they consider their jobs to be and what their relationship is to other jobs in the organization. Have significant books and magazine articles reviewed.

Bring in distinguished out-of-town speakers who happen to be in the city.

Give prizes or rewards or make commendations for special service.

Meetings should not be so frequent as to make employees feel that important time is being taken away from their work, or so infrequent as to make the employees feel that the meeting is not a significant part of the work of the organization.

Stiff-minded technicians should not be permitted to prevent staff and committee meetings at suitable intervals because of their objection that more important work is to be done. Nothing can be more important, within the limits of the time available, than to make the staff share in the work of the organization, understand the

work that is to be done, and get a feeling of worth through common endeavor. These values, through the promotion of more efficient and more continuous work, will compensate many times over for the time spent in meetings.

Some staffs hold brief meetings, say fifteen minutes, once a week; others meet for one hour once a month. Some meet only when there is something to discuss. A new staff, unfamiliar with policies and procedures, may need to hold meetings more often than a veteran staff familiar with the work of the organization. Yet the old staff may be in a rut which will make frequent meetings all the more important.

Staff meetings carefully planned and regularly held (at least once a month), well executed on lines of real interest to the staff and securing their active and enthusiastic participation, should be well worth the time and effort expended upon them.

(f) An Example from the Federal Security Agency. In corroboration and amplification of the above, we present the following excerpt from Training Bulletin No. 2 (not dated but recent), produced by the Training Division of the Federal Security Agency and entitled *Making Staff Meetings More Useful.* (If you want to know more about the subject, borrow a copy from the local office of that agency.)

> Staff meetings are most successful when the supervisor keeps his purpose clearly in mind. The two major purposes are:
>
> (1) To give instruction or give and exchange information, and
>
> (2) To permit the group to consider common problems.
>
> Staff meetings are less effective when the supervisor uses them for one of these purposes to the exclusion of the other.
>
> In using the staff meeting for giving information, the supervisor saves time by explaining to a group, rather than individually, what they need to know about actions, decisions, changes in policy, and so on. He may give work instructions when all members of the group need the same instructions. He may bring in someone outside the unit to give specialized information.
>
> The staff meeting, however, should not be a one-way street. The supervisor may ask each member of the group for information and ideas that are significant to other members. Each may be called upon to describe developments in his own work that members in related areas need to know about. An important advantage of giving information or instructions in a staff meeting is that there is opportunity for discussion. Any confusion can be clarified and the group may reach a common understanding of the significance of the information and its application to their work.
>
> It is equally important, though more difficult, to use staff meetings to discuss and solve common problems. This purpose grows out of the facts

that the supervisor cannot solve all the problems of the unit single-handedly and that several heads are sometimes better than one. The supervisor, faced with the necessity of making decisions or plans, gets the benefit of the thinking of his staff. On occasion, a member of the group may seek the advice of other members in solving a difficulty in his work.

(*g*) *Staff Bulletins.* Staff participation in the organization's work may be secured in other ways than in meetings. The organization may, for example, distribute among all its staff members a bulletin which is also sent to board members. Still better, the staff in a larger organization may have its own bulletin. In this, matters of personal interest to the staff members may be discussed, events in the life of the organization described, new policies proposed and explained, important books reviewed, and any other matters of interest presented in an interesting way. The bulletin can merely be mimeographed or dittoed. If intelligently prepared it can be a valuable factor in holding together an organization which, because of separation in districts or because of operations on a state-wide basis, may not have much chance for face-to-face informal conferences.

(*h*) *Encouraging Suggestions.* Suggestions of staff members may be invited by placing a locked mail box in a convenient location. Anonymous suggestions should be given consideration if they are of such a character that the employee might hesitate to give his name for fear of being discriminated against. On the other hand, petty criticism should be discouraged. A prize of one day added to annual leave might be offered for the best suggestion each month and presented in certificate form at the first staff meeting the following month. Prizes of one-half day each might be made for every other suggestion adopted. This expenditure would be well justified by savings of expense and by the improvement of methods which suggestions may produce.

Although criticism should be welcomed, both in the suggestion box and face to face, the executive should do his best to make sure that staff members limit their criticism to remarks made to him and do not disseminate it through gossip with the staff or in the community at large. He should make it understood that he will take whatever action is possible either to explain the groundlessness of the criticism or to obviate its need.

CORRECTION. In spite of all that may be done to secure active participation, the time sometimes comes in an organization, as in society, when some employee does not abide by the rules and has

to be disciplined or corrected. To administer discipline is usually the task of the executive or supervisor.

The worst possible policy is for the executive or the supervisor to harbor without expression the feeling that the staff member is not doing his duty properly. The latter may sense a feeling of irritation and yet not know the basis for it, since he himself may be unaware of the actual difficulty.

Certainly the only way to correct an employee whose work is unsatisfactory is through frank and full discussion of the whole situation. In minor matters a sub-executive may deal with the situation. In more serious difficulties, however, the executive himself must step in and exercise all his tact and all his authority when necessary.

Correction need not always be direct criticism. The situation may be mentioned quite innocently, without direct reference to the offender, in the course of a conversation, or it may be spoken of at a staff meeting as a matter which needs attention by some members of the staff, without mentioning any names. All corrections should be handled as a matter not of "bawling out" the individual but of showing him the situations he creates and the way in which he can overcome them. Correction of an individual should never be made in public or before any staff member, and never in anger. The executive should always act on the principle that there is a reason for every action and that if the action is wrong it can be corrected in the long run only by finding the reason and removing the fundamental difficulty. For that reason the executive should be sure he has the facts before he criticizes. Inquiry may prove that the supposed culprit was quite innocent, at least from his point of view.

In extreme cases of friction or unsatisfactory work, the executive may find it desirable to transfer the offender from one department to another. Dismissal, the last resort, should be utilized only when all other means have failed.

Sometimes an employee's activity outside the organization needs correction. It is theoretically true that the executive is not responsible for either the recreation or the actions of an employee outside of office hours. Nevertheless the community may condemn a social agency for the leisure-time conduct of one of its workers. If the behavior of a worker away from the office is such as either to reduce his efficiency in his work or to cause unfavorable comment on the organization for employing him, the situation becomes one which

may demand the executive's attention. Even under such conditions, however, the task of the executive is not ordinarily to apply summary discharge. On the contrary, he will try to discover the causes of the unsatisfactory conduct and to remove them if possible, if for no other reason than that a social agency should give an example of enlightened human relations.

As an experienced travelers' aid executive has suggested: "Social agencies ought to be at least as ready to give people another chance as they advise others to be. In the wide and uncertain field of so-called morals where different people hold different conceptions of what is and what is not moral, the agency should be particularly careful to mind its own business unless it has some very grave reason for not doing so, such as public and open attack. Circumstances might then arise when it would be necessary to ask a worker to go, even though his conduct might not be as lacking in virtue as is the public condemnation. The worker's interest might have to be sacrificed for the good of the agency"—on the ground that, regardless of the morality of the act, the worker as an employee of the organization had no right, so long as he was an employee, to conduct himself in such a way as to damage the good repute of or public good will toward the agency.

Assuredly a staff member who is sharing in the participative activities of a well-organized social agency ought to be so well aware of the mutual responsibility of all the staff for its effective operation that a few words from the executive should be sufficient to bring him to a sense of his own responsibility and to make further discipline unnecessary.

SERVICE IN PERSONAL PROBLEMS. A step removed from discipline, and yet intimately connected with the effectiveness of staff members, is the executive's responsibility to them, when necessary, in their personal problems. Sickness in the family, domestic discord which affects the member's work, or other problems may arise in which the agency through the experience of its staff members and its resources may be of some help. It would seem that a social agency, as a representative of social principles in the community, should be especially mindful of the importance of applying these principles to its staff members. This policy pays in keeping workers loyal and in preserving their efficiency. More than that, the social agency in this way may serve as a constructive example of the value of effective individualized personal relations between the executive and the members of his staff.

The service relationship should not imply a "bossy" paternalism. It does mean, however, that the executive should be available for personal counsel and help when needed.

A social agency should indeed be in an especially favorable position to call upon any of the other social resources of the community when they can be of help in the problems of the individual worker. As an able executive has said, "Advice should be given not only willingly but understandingly and in as confidential a manner as by a case work agency when a client is concerned. An understanding and far-seeing executive could do much to help in the social problems of members of his staff if he himself had an understanding of how to get them to come to him when they really needed his help."

Another executive adds, "A good case work job on a staff member is more than a salvaging process; it releases new energy and brings enthusiasm and increased skill to the job."

The secretary of a family society, however, warns, "One should not make a regular case of a staff member without the permission of that person."

Another executive counsels still further, "Continued supervision after the crisis has passed is usually resented and always affords opportunity for office gossip."

Care must be taken, too, that the staff does not rely too heavily on the executive and his administrative assistance for counseling, lest too much time and energy be consumed. Moreover, there is danger that objectivity of treatment may be lost through the closeness of the employer-employee relationship. Other social resources of the community should be drawn on when the load of service to any one employee becomes too heavy or the relationship too intimate.

The policy of the executive should be to give personal service to staff members with discretion, to provide it when requested, and to discontinue it as quickly as possible. Otherwise the staff member may in a sense be pauperized by the undue attention he receives and cease to be an effective participating member of the staff—and participation is the goal of effective personnel management.

RECREATION FOR STAFF MEMBERS. In modern as in ancient times, a sound mind should accompany a sound body. A social agency must give some thought to the recreation of its staff members to make sure that their minds do not grow stale through lack of such facilities and opportunities. This is less of a problem in large cities where there are many more recreational resources than in small towns.

It is less, too, where the workers are familiar with the community and its resources than when they come from other cities and may have neither the friends nor the ability to make friends easily.

The executive and board will therefore make sure that their staff members have adequate leisure time, with overtime work cut down to the minimum. In addition, they will see that suggestions are made for recreational opportunities to those employees who wish them. This does not mean, however, that the board members have any responsibility for entertaining individual executives or staff members. Social relationships should be mutual. The board members should not give hospitality which is based upon pity and which the social worker cannot return; nor should the self-respecting social worker accept it. The executive or board member can, however, suggest groups which the staff members may find it pleasant and profitable to join. Many boards of directors find it worth while to give a tea once or twice a year, at which all the staff and board members meet and develop a better understanding.

(*a*) *The Executive as Entertainer.* The executive has no more personal responsibility for the recreation of his staff members than do the board members. There is danger that if he spends much of his spare time with some of his staff members the other members may feel that he is showing favoritism. More than this, it is wise for the executive and staff members alike to associate out of the office as far as possible with individuals whose interests lie in different fields, for the sake of getting away from shop talk and broadening their own interests and contacts. Nevertheless the executive should take special pains to make new staff members feel at home. If the staff is not too large he may entertain the members at his home once or twice a year, as a personal appreciation of their work. In general, elaborate schemes of recreation and of "welfare," such as were more popular with industrial establishments a few years ago than they seem to be now, are not necessary for social agencies.

(*b*) *Staff Parties.* Morale may be developed to some extent by staff parties or picnics—held perhaps three or four times a year and arranged by a committee elected by the staff members—to which all the staff members are invited. Parties are usually much more successful if they are planned by the staff members themselves in accordance with their own interests and enthusiasms, than if organized completely under the supervision of the executive. In an organization partly professional and partly clerical the party should ordinarily include the whole group.

At staff parties it is wise for the executive to assume no more authority than that of the humblest member of the staff, to forget any ideas of "bossiness," and to give the recreation committee full scope to work out its own plans without his suggestion unless it is asked for.

The executive might exercise some supervision, if desirable, over the selection of the committee which is to manage the staff party, making sure that those chosen are competent to plan and execute it; or he might offer to advise an elected committee. If the party is not well planned and effectively carried out it is likely to be a complete failure, and this will discourage future staff parties. Our observation, however, has been that the staff committee usually can "pull off" a better party or picnic than we could think up.

In one organization with a staff of twelve a tickler file was kept of the birthdays of all its members. On each birthday there was a luncheon party. Sometimes also the whole group (all but the one who had to keep the office open) was taken in the executive's car for a picnic luncheon in one of the public parks, all returning within the one-hour luncheon period.

One staff committee we knew made up a mimeographed booklet of staff birthdays so that cards could be sent by those so disposed.

In general, recreation should be a spontaneous outgrowth of the common interests and enthusiasms of the staff. Organized recreation is a valuable aid to morale, if natural and mutually agreeable, but a dreadful bore and a creator of antagonisms if not conceived and handled democratically but competently.

CERTIFICATES OF AWARD TO EMPLOYEES. Certificates of award to employees for long periods of service may be a help to staff morale. The Bureau of Old Age and Survivors Insurance of the Federal Security Agency of the Social Security Board has successfully used the seven-year award and recently put into effect a plan for a ten-year service award. Fred C. Rogers, the manager of the Social Security Board Field Office of Houston, Texas, says, "We have just completed a poll in our office as to whether or not our employees would like to receive certificates of award for ten years of service. The staff is 100 per cent for it. I'll make a bet that almost any social agency staff would vote for it, too. Those of us who received seven-year awards several years ago had them framed. They are hanging on the walls in our respective offices."

One of our friends who is office manager of a big public utility says that his company gives service pins to long-time employees. These are good because you can wear them!

STAFF DUES. In some organizations the staff committee has devised a plan for staff dues of 25 cents or so a month with which to pay for flowers for sick members or in case of death and for simple going-away presents for members who leave the organization after a long period of service. This fund may be augmented from the proceeds of a bottled soft-drink machine, if the staff has one.

STAFF GIFTS. Exchange of gifts between staff members at birthdays and Christmas should be discouraged. Gifts to executives or sub-executives from individual staff members or groups of them, on such occasions or any other except departure from the agency, should be absolutely prohibited. The reasons are obvious and, as Mrs. Malaprop might say, odorous.

SOLICITATION OF FUNDS. If appeals are presented to the agency for approved general community campaigns, the executive may assign to the staff committee the task of organizing and conducting solicitation. The agency should be at least as co-operative and generous in respect to these appeals as is a business or industrial organization.

QUESTIONS

1. How does the technique of administrative efficiency differ from that of personal efficiency?

2. In some typical social agency you know, what freedom of action does the executive have in handling his staff?

3. What qualities of administrative leadership are shown by the executive of this agency?

4. Draw up a chart of organization for this social agency.

5. How is the staff organized?

6. What lines of authority does it have?

7. How is co-operation between departments insured?

8. How is responsibility delegated?

9. What personal work does the executive do which is not delegated to someone else?

10. How are orders given?

11. How is performance supervised?

12. How are workers instructed and trained?

13. To what extent does the staff participate in management?

14. How is this participation managed?

15. How are staff meetings handled?

16. Has the agency a staff bulletin? If so, what is its nature and value?

17. How are suggestions and criticisms by staff members handled?

18. How are employees corrected and disciplined?

19. What service is given to personal problems of staff members?

20. What is done about staff recreation?

21. What recognition, if any, is given for length of service?

22. Are there any staff dues? If so, how much and what is done with them?

23. How might any of these factors of staff management in this agency be improved?

Chapter XVIII

Office Management

BUSINESS METHODS AND SOCIAL WORK. The discussions of the previous chapters have followed a path which has steadily diminished in width: from the broad considerations of the constitution to the more specific details of the bylaws; through the responsibility of boards, committees, and executives into the details of office arrangement and equipment, personnel policies, and staff management. This is a path along which, for the most part, the whole activity of the organization may march. The path now narrows down to one wide enough for only part of the program of the agency. From now on most of the discussion will concern itself specifically with the methods of the business, financial, and public relations functions of the agency. These activities are related to the professional service of the organization, since they provide facilities and means for carrying it on more effectively. They are, nevertheless, the kinds of activity which are most closely comparable to the procedure of business offices in industrial and mercantile establishments and in governmental agencies.

The business functions and methods of the social agency would include all those activities which are concerned with getting the routine business of the office done efficiently. The principles and practices followed have been well demonstrated both in business establishments and in governmental and social agencies. There is ample literature on the subject of office management; some of the best of it you will find in the bibliography at the back of this book.

Among the subjects included in office management are the following: (1) managerial duties, including compilation and application of the office manual, supervision of records, organization, planning, assignment of work, supervision, inspection and checking, and delivery of completed work; (2) stenographic and typing service, including stenographic work, dictating machine operation, typing (copy work, records, and so forth); (3) bookkeeping service; (4)

telephone service; (5) reception service; (6) filing; (7) record keeping; (8) messenger service; and (9) operation and maintenance of office machines. Our own observation, thought, and experience of these subjects are recorded in this and following chapters.

The office is a large part of what is sometimes called "overhead" in the social agency. However, the fact that there is such a head over the organization, with well-conceived policies and procedures, alone makes it possible to carry on the work of the agency efficiently and economically, as an effective instrumentality of human service.

OFFICE MANAGER. Perhaps the first necessity of an effective office is that it shall have a responsible chief clerk or office manager in charge. (Let us call him the office manager, for the sake of simplicity.) If no office manager is specifically employed, a tactful, responsible staff member whose work requires him to spend full time in the office may act as an executive, adviser, and director of the clerical staff.

(*a*) *Full-Time or Part-Time.* Most social agency offices, as a matter of fact, do not need a full-time office manager. The person who serves in that capacity usually should have other detailed duties, such as accounting, secretarial service, checking lists, or typing to fill in his time when he is not engaged in executive work. On the other hand, a surprising amount of time can be profitably spent by an office manager who will give active attention to all the functions of office management, including planning, preparing schedules, assigning work, instructing, supervising, checking up on work, and reporting results.

Office management should not be a sideline. The manager should do first and fully his executive work and then give the time that is left, if any, to other office work. In a departmentalized organization, the office manager would be a department head, with ability, responsibility, standing, and salary equal to those of other department heads.

It is difficult to specify the size of office which needs a full-time manager. That would depend on the competence of the personnel and the nature of their duties. We would think that an office with ten or more secretarial and clerical employees would need a person who gave the major part of his time to management, and that in a clerical staff of three or four persons one member should be designated to serve as chief clerk or chief stenographer.

(*b*) *Responsibilities.* Whether the office manager gives full or part time to executive work, all general clerical work should pass

through his hands and no demands on the unassigned clerical or stenographic staff should be made except through him. Of course secretaries assigned to specific executives would do their work directly. We favor, however, a stenographic and clerical pool to which most of the work can be allocated as needed. Only with this arrangement is it possible to plan and carry on the tasks of the office smoothly and effectively.

Each sub-executive should be encouraged to eliminate, as far as possible, demands on the staff for emergency work. He should be required to give the office manager advance notice of heavy jobs and should turn over to the latter as much as possible of the preparatory material for a big job in advance of the time required for its completion.

A typical set of duties for the office manager (and the persons under his direction) is set forth in the manual of the Community Chest and Council in Houston as follows:

Interview and employ all non-executive personnel.

Schedule, assign, supervise, and route all clerical work performed in the central office, including operation of all office machines and switchboard.

Maintain general files; maintain master file; post pledges and other information to master file.

Prepare prospect lists and other material for campaign.

Open and distribute mail; enclose and mail monthly statements and other mail involving a large volume of work.

Order supplies and equipment and issue purchase orders.

Maintain stock room and inventory.

Make requests of proper persons regarding maintenance and repair of equipment and building.

Serve as secretary of the prospect committee for campaigns.

This office manager would also have been responsible for supervising the bookkeeping if the agency had not had a separate auditing department.

The office manager will find it wise to try out certain jobs himself to find the best way of doing them, in addition to using the methods he develops through observation, reading, and study of the methods of other organizations. A good office manager, who should possess many of the qualities already mentioned for a general executive, can save a great amount of time and money in an office of any considerable size.

An organization with district offices may have in each office a district secretary who is under the general supervision of the office

manager in the main office. The office manager should receive regular reports from the district offices and should visit them from time to time to discuss special problems. The district secretary will of course work under the specific direction of the district superintendent, who is responsible for professional service within the district.

OFFICE MANUAL. No matter how competent the office manager may be, neither he nor the employees can do their work effectively unless they are aided by some sort of up-to-date written rules and regulations which describe the duties and privileges of staff members and the methods by which work is to be carried out. The office manual is sometimes called the "Office Bible." Manuals are widely used in industry, business, government, and social agencies.

The office manual which we use includes the following subjects:

1. Description of the agency and its general functions.
2. Brief history of the agency.
3. Office organization and organization chart.
4. Titles and duties of the executive staff.
5. Office policies—including office hours, holidays, annual leave, absence and sick leave, overtime, salary payments, retirement income insurance, group hospitalization and medical care, handling of campaign pledges of employees, and resignations.
6. Staff organization—including staff committee, staff meetings, and staff lounge.
7. General office procedures.
8. Purchase orders.
9. Messenger service.
10. Transportation and travel.
11. Reimbursement for official expenses.
12. Use of telephone and telegraph.
13. Current practices (covering the current methods for performing operations which have not been standardized).
14. Individual standard practices (instructions for specific jobs).

Another outline, recently suggested by Arthur Dunham, Professor of Community Organization in the Curriculum in Social Work of the School of Graduate Studies of the University of Michigan, follows:

a. Introduction (the why, what, and how of the manual).
b. The agency—general description; history; purpose, functions, philosophy; organization; personnel.
c. Policies ("the policy book").
d. Personnel policies.
e. Job specifications or descriptions, and job standards, where these have been formulated.

f. Record forms.

g. Procedures and standard practice instructions.

The manual should be mimeographed or dittoed, and preserved in loose-leaf folders or ring books. If a manual is bulky, marginal tabs to indicate sections or chapters may be helpful.

The office manual should be given in its entirety to each supervisory staff member. Each other staff member should be given a copy which includes the general information about the agency and the organization of the office as a whole, plus instructions regarding his own job and those of other employees with whose work he must dovetail his own. The holder of each copy of the manual should be registered, and he should return his copy to the agency when he leaves its employ.

The manual ought to be revised whenever any specific changes are made in practice. It should be gone over in detail by the office manager or some other responsible member of the staff at least every three months. In this way the agency can make sure that the manual covers the current practice in the office. If it does not do so, either the manual or the practice should be revised.

(*a*) *Value of the Manual.* The value of the office manual is clear. The manual is at once a textbook for new employees and a reference work for both old and new. It prevents disputes as to responsibility and holds workers to those responsibilities. It helps to clarify the relationship of one job to another and of each job to the organization as a whole. It saves time which otherwise would be spent in explanation and argument, expecially in regard to details of performance. It stimulates current thinking regarding the policies and practices of the organization, for suggested policies must be put in writing and subjected to definite criticism. It helps to keep an inaccurate or careless worker up to the mark, for the evidence of his own inefficiency is clear if he fails to meet the standards indited. Perhaps most important, the manual tells the best and quickest way to do the *routine* jobs, thus leaving more time and energy for the creative tasks. Thus, if the case worker prepares her monthly statistical report in thirty minutes instead of an hour and a half, she will have that much more time left for her basic job of giving case work service, which is more creative, more interesting, and more directly concerned with service to human beings.

(*b*) *Dangers of the Manual.* Nevertheless certain dangers may be experienced in the use of the office manual. Such use may become too rigid. It may not correspond to actual practice, and then it will

cease to be respected by the employees. It may define so sharply the responsibilities of the different workers that important work will fail to be done because it falls between the duties listed for each worker. This difficulty is less likely to occur if all workers participate actively in the formulation and execution of the policies of the organization.

(c) *Job Descriptions as Part of the Manual.* A necessary preliminary to the satisfactory preparation of an office manual and an integral part of every manual should be the written description of every job already discussed in relation to employment. Written description helps to fit employees for handling the work of others during illness or vacation. It is also of great value in planning the distribution of work, in laying out the different jobs in relation to one another, and in studying the whole work of the organization in terms of the operations to be performed. Job analysis and description are described at length in numerous books on office administration, notably in Leffingwell's *Office Management Principles and Practices.* Anyone who wishes to make a detailed analysis and to prepare a description of a job will find it well to study such material.

(d) *Standard Practice Instructions in the Manual.* Growing out of the job analysis and description, and still more important for the office manual, are standard practice instructions. These may apply either to the procedure of the organization as a whole or to specific jobs. Ordinarily they refer to the latter. The standard practice instruction describes the way in which a particular job is to be done and may go into complete detail regarding the manner in which material is to be prepared and the various operations performed. These instructions may go so far as to employ in their preparation "time and motion" studies, as indicated by Leffingwell. There is no need to repeat here his excellent precepts. The point is that, for each job in the organization which has been reduced to routine, instructions should be written out in as great detail as is possible. Whenever the most efficient way of doing a thing, for the time being, has been found, it should be recorded in writing for the use of the whole staff. That standard procedure should be followed until a better way has been found. Thereupon the procedure should be revised and new standards set.

The advantages of written standard practice instructions as part of the office manual are evident. They prevent confusion as to methods of work. They record the best methods of each employee for the benefit of all. They facilitate the training of new employees

and the filling in of temporarily vacated jobs by substitutes. They make sure that no one in the organization has any "trade secrets" which he takes with him when he departs. Indeed, one aim of the office manual should be to make certain that no person is indispensable to an operation.

(e) Group Participation in Analysis and Standardization. Standard practice instructions and job descriptions do not grow out of thin air. Nor can they successfully be the product of a "snooping" autocracy. Although some individual may be responsible for the preparation of these documents, they are most effectively prepared and most satisfactorily worked out when they are developed through that technique of participation which has already been emphasized so frequently. Thus job descriptions may be undertaken by asking the workers themselves to write up their jobs as they see them. These descriptions may then be criticized by the office manager and discussed with the employee, talked over again with groups of workers, and finally, when both executive and worker have agreed as to their exactness, made a part of the records of the organization. Standard practice instructions, too, are best prepared when each member of the staff writes out the way in which he does his particular job. After revision by the office manager, all the employees who are engaged in this particular work are asked to discuss the instructions and to make suggestions. Finally, the standard practice is adopted in final form as the result of agreement by the workers.

If you are confused as to the difference between job descriptions and standard practice instructions, reflect that the former are "what you do"; the latter, "how you do it." That ought to dispel the fog!

The manual should be presented to the board or to the personnel committee for approval so far as general policies are concerned.

(f) The Manual Need Not Be Complex. The agency should not delay the preparation of an office manual until all its operations are completely standardized. The staff should, rather, put in writing the procedures which it has developed and then expand this written record as practices crystallize. As Arthur Dunham suggests, "the way to start a manual is (1) to make a general outline of the proposed contents, (2) to *record present practice.* Don't try to revise and perfect all your practices before you record them, or you'll probably never have a manual. Record what you do now; then go ahead with all the revision that is needed. The revision process should be more or less continuous, in any case." Every step made in this direction will simplify, control, and improve the assignment of responsibility and will add to the efficiency and economy of the agency.

Even if the office manual is not complete, each employee at least should have a card or sheet which lists his duties and describes the methods of doing his work.

(*g*) *Manuals of Local Branches of National Agencies.* Local agencies that are chartered or established as branches of national organizations will include in their manuals any rules, statements of procedure, or standard practice instructions which are prescribed by the national agency, and they will see that their manuals are corrected as new material comes from the parent body.

(*h*) *Manuals of Governmental Agencies.* Similarly, branches of the local, state, or federal government will include in their manuals provisions of the city or county charter and ordinances, of the state or federal constitution, and of state and federal laws which control the agency's activities; interpretations and rulings of courts, government attorneys, auditors and comptrollers, and other officials in respect to these legal documents; and pertinent rules and regulations of the government or unit of government of which the agency is a part.

This material must be kept up to date. The public official is obliged to operate within the limitations and in accordance with the material described above. Severe penalties and nullification of his acts may be consequent upon his failure to do so. His plea of lack of knowledge will not be accepted as an excuse. Therefore his manual should be complete and current in respect to the official material which we have described.

(*i*) *Index to Manual.* If the manual is at all complex—and those of governmental agencies especially must be—an index which covers every subject included in the manual should be part of it. The index should be corrected as new material is included within the manual. And of course there should be a table of contents in the front of the manual.

(*j*) *Advantages of Loose-Leaf Manual.* The manual can most readily be corrected and maintained if it is set up in loose-leaf form. When a correction is to be made or new material received from higher authority, a new page or pages can be duplicated and issued to all holders of the manual, with instructions that the old pages be initialed and returned to the office manager for destruction. Thus the manual can be kept always up to date, an ever-ready guide to agency practice.

(*k*) *Mix the Manual with Common Sense.* No manual can take the place of common sense. As the executive of a large public health nursing organization warns: "Whether one is working in the office

or in the field, human beings are, after all, different from office furniture and filing pieces. It is said that the president of a national corporation with many branches once telegraphed all of his plants when a railroad strike was impending, 'In the event of a strike, headquarters expects each supervisor to use his common sense.' This is a good standard to follow 365 days in the year. After workers have been tried and found capable, their good work should be stressed occasionally and they should be given as much responsibility and leeway as possible." An office manual will free such workers for the tasks which require initiative and common sense and for adjustment to everyday emergencies, because the routine which must be followed and the regulations which are essential to frictionless operation are presented in it.

MEASUREMENT OF OUTPUT. In addition to the standard practice instructions in the office manual, the office manager, if he is properly to plan and distribute the work to his clerical and typing staff, must have some knowledge as to how much work of a given kind his employees can turn out. Without this knowledge he may have some employees waiting for work or dawdling at it while others are so overworked that they will be unable either to finish the work on time or to do it accurately or adequately.

It is true that in many social work offices the number of employees is so small and the variety of their work so great that measurement of output is difficult. Still, some methods of measurement can be devised which will form a valuable basis for planning future work.

For example, if the office manager counts the number of dictating machine cylinders the average transcriber can handle during the day, he can readily see when one operator has too many and another not enough to keep her busy. The manager then can equalize the distribution of the cylinders. The output of the entire office will be greater if this is done than would otherwise be the case.

In the same way, the office manager should know the capacity of his various office machines—how many envelopes an addressing machine will do in an hour, how many sheets the mimeograph will print per hour, and so on. With that information he can plan his possible mechanical output and make his promises for completion of the work (with suitable leeway for contingencies) in terms of his equipment.

He can count the number of three-line names and addresses of contributors his typists can do on a manuscript list in an hour. From this he can compute how many girl-hours will be necessary to type a

list of 10,000 names. If a girl can turn out 100 names an hour he knows that this job should take 100 hours. This would mean either one girl working 100 hours, or 10 girls for 10 hours, or whatever other disposition he can make of time and of labor force.

Computation may be made more elaborate on routine jobs in various ways, as for example:—to estimate the output of typewriting, by measuring the square inches of typing turned out in copying manuscript material in reports, or by attaching cyclometers to typewriters to count the number of strokes; to estimate the daily output of a clerk in checking cards, by multiplying the thickness of her cards, in inches, by the number of cards to an inch.

Records of output may be used in the evaluation of employees; in that case they should be made part of each employee's personnel record.

WORKING FOR ACCURACY. Speed, however, is no more important than accuracy in production. One method of promoting the latter is to check each piece of work carefully for accuracy, record the number of corrections which are necessary, and list on the bulletin board or in the office records the percentage of accuracy of each worker.

In some work the high accuracy which this method encourages is desirable. In other operations, however, it seems safe to follow the principle that only those mistakes which come to light are important and that the accuracy of workers may be measured by the number of complaints which are caused by their errors.

For example, an organization's list of members or subscribers may be divided into six approximately equal parts, with one clerk in charge of each section responsible for making out bills, for making corrections due to removal or death, and for posting payments made on subscriptions. By this plan the organization benefits, because each clerk is familiar with his section of the files and hence does better work. Furthermore, each clerk is held responsible for any errors made in his section. The knowledge that errors can be located and charged to a specific individual promotes accuracy.

Another effective method of supervision is to check repeated samples of the work of each employee.

Still another way, as in the making of master cards for a list of prospective contributors, is to have the clerk initial each card he makes. Thus errors can quickly be traced to their source and the makers of the errors admonished.

If records of speed are kept, the records of accuracy should be

checked against them so that the worker will receive credit only for a combination of speed and accuracy—much, for example, as in the typing tests which have already been mentioned in connection with employment.

Instead of holding the supervisor responsible for measuring output, it is sometimes easier to have each employee every night fill out a report based on his own measurement of the amount of work he has done and showing the time of beginning and ending each job and his output on that job. As a guide to faulty assignment of work, clerical employees may also be asked to report the time lost in waiting for work as well as that actually spent in work.

It is not always desirable to measure all the work done by clerical workers. A log, which is kept for a week or two every three months or so, may give sufficient measurement of the speed with which each operation is being done and of the kinds of work each employee is doing. The log will serve as a basis for the revision of the schedule of work. It will aid, too, in scheduling further operations in terms of actual performance.

RECOGNITION OF PERFORMANCE. Regardless of the procedure by which work is measured, it is often effective to post the results on the bulletin board. The relationship between the output of the different members of the staff may be shown in terms of rate per hour. The relative speed of each employee may be indicated by a bar of appropriate length opposite each name. A second bar beneath the "speed" bar may show the percentage of accuracy. The fact that one's record is known serves as an incentive to better and more accurate output. Moreover, the element of competition between workers gives zest to their activity. More work is produced with less apparent fatigue and better spirits than if each worker is "on his own."

In confirmation of this idea, the secretary of one of the larger social service exchanges of the country has written:

> The Exchange maintains a daily report for each staff member which contains the number of inquiries cleared, cards typed, indexed, or refiled, etc. At the end of the week this material is tabulated by the chief clerk and posted on the bulletin board. This record has been effective in detecting discriminations formerly unnoted, and in stimulating old and new staff members to a definite standard of output, accuracy, and thoroughness.

A further effective use of measurement has been suggested by the executive of a children's agency:

Stenographers keep individual day books, noting the amount of time consumed in dictation according to schedule, and extra time allotted to case workers by the office manager. These books at a glance show whether the stenographer is carrying a reasonable amount of dictation and also allow for subsequent shifts of dictation. At the end of each week two sets of figures are drawn off the books: first, the total amount of untranscribed dictation; second, amount of dictation time used by each case worker. The latter information is transferred to individual record cards filed at the supervisor's desk. They show whether the case worker is using his allotted two hours a week, is behind in dictation, or is requiring an undue amount of extra dictation time.

Of course, we would suggest that this agency use dictating machines. The number of cylinders, transcribed and untranscribed, could be recorded in the same way as proposed for the stenographers.

Any record of output should be simple. Its tabulating and analysis should be centralized. Only those records should be kept which are significant and pay their way in terms of accuracy of work, improvement of output, allocation of duties, and enhancement of morale.

SCHEDULING OFFICE WORK. The efficient office manager will maintain a list of all his clerical workers, either in a notebook in his desk or on the bulletin board. Each day he may post after every employee's name the work he is to do that day. He may also find it desirable to indicate the duration of each job, either by some sort of bar chart or by symbols which will show the work to be done each hour.

For more complicated jobs he may supplement his chart of the duties assigned to each staff member with a detailed schedule of all office operations for a period such as a month or a quarter. Again, a visible index may be used; in this the work to be done is noted on index cards arranged in order by the days of the month. There could be a different-colored card for each employee. This index shows each job that is to be done days, weeks, or months in advance; indicates clearly what is to be done on a given day; and, if any work is unfinished, shows this also. At the completion of the work the cards can be filed in a "completed" section and used over again if the work is repetitive.

By the use of these or similar devices, tasks can be assigned before an employee runs out of work. Heavy jobs, such as checking long lists, can be scheduled weeks in advance. Progress toward completion can be indicated by bars drawn across the chart each day to

show the amount of work actually accomplished. A chart that is in view of all the employees will give them a sense of participation in results and will help them to more effective effort than if they are working with no knowledge of what work lies ahead. A regular schedule of dictation may be made for all stenographers or dictating machine operators so that dictation can be given outside of the scheduled hours only by special arrangement. On larger and more detailed jobs, the use of a chart and the records of the workers' possible output will be a great help to the office manager, for it will enable him to postpone the work which can best be put aside for an emergency job. When it is necessary to employ additional workers and equipment or to arrange for overtime work, he can proceed serenely in the knowledge that the standard practice instructions and the estimated output will make him master of almost any situation. Only with a system of measurement, plus the careful scheduling of operations, will he be able to work in the light instead of in more or less darkness. He will be saved untold worry, and the organization will be able to get its work done promptly and as planned.

STAFF FOR EMERGENCIES. In order to meet the emergency demands that are always arising in an organization, it is well to have a staff large enough to handle emergency needs so that routine work can be set aside when necessary—and there are always emergencies in any social agency. If clerks have free time, they can do fill-in work, such as checking names of persons from newspaper death lists against contributors' lists, filing pamphlets, and the like.

IMPORTANCE OF AN EVEN FLOW OF WORK. No organization, however, should allow its professional or volunteer workers to think that emergency work can be given too frequently to the clerical staff. Plans once settled upon must ordinarily be adhered to. Schedules as far as possible must not be changed. Effective management of an office depends to a large extent on an even flow of work according to plans and schedules laid well in advance. Executives and sub-executives who are often faced with emergencies caused by their inadequate planning should occasionally be allowed to suffer delay in execution of their dilatory projects and warned that in the future they had better plan farther ahead if they want the co-operation of the office. Genuine emergencies should be met in good spirit. The work of the office should be so organized, and contacts with volunteers and staff members made so effective, that emergency work will tend to disappear in long-time planning and in scheduling based on known capacity for performance.

The primary expectation of the executive and department heads of an organization is that when a job is delegated to the office manager it will be finished at the time agreed upon. If this is not possible, they should be told of the delay in ample time for them to make other plans and should be given clear statement of the reasons for delay. The most successful office manager is the one who always makes good on his promises, partly because he never promises what is impossible and partly because he can always secure the co-operation of the other executives in making their plans in advance. Still, when a genuine emergency arises, he should meet it with the motto of the "Seabees" in the Second World War—"Can do!"

An office, thus constructively managed, will be a vital force in facilitating the human service of the agency.

QUESTIONS

1. List what you consider the business functions of some typical social agency with which you are familiar.
2. Does that agency have some specific person in charge of office activities?
3. If so, what are his responsibilities?
4. What work, other than office management, does he do?
5. Has this agency an office manual?
6. If so, what subjects does it include?
7. What advantages and disadvantages does this agency find in the manual?
8. What does this agency do about job analysis and description?
9. What does it do about standard practice instructions?
10. How, if at all, does it measure clerical output?
11. What use, if any, does it make of such measurement?
12. How does it endeavor to secure accuracy in office work?
13. How, if at all, is its office work scheduled?
14. How does this agency handle emergency office work?
15. How, if at all, does it secure an even flow of office work?
16. How do you think the management of this office might be improved?

Chapter XIX

Efficient Office Methods

DICTATION OF LETTERS AND RECORDS. One of the operations which has to be most frequently scheduled in the social work office is handling the dictation of correspondence and case records.

(*a*) *Similarity between the Two.* The dictation of letters and that of records have much in common. We shall not venture to lay down any rules for record writing, because we have never served in a case working agency—our services have been with the co-ordinative phases of social work. On the other hand, observation leads us to believe that what is said here regarding correspondence will apply almost equally well to case records.

(*b*) *Conversational Tone.* A conversational tone must be striven for first of all. A letter is merely a substitute for conversation. In general, the letters of a social agency should be informal. They should eschew such antiquated mannerisms as "In response to your esteemed favor of the 15th ult. beg to state" in favor of the more natural "Your letter of October 15 pleased us greatly. We are glad to know that we are so nearly agreed. We would suggest. . . ." Talk about "you" and "your" rather than "I" and "mine." The principles of good conversation extend even to the close of the letter. The old-fashioned conclusion, "Thanking you in advance for your courtesy, I am, Very truly yours," might well give place to the more conversational form, for example, "I know you will be glad to render this service. Expectantly yours."

(*c*) *Avoid "Humor."* In spite of conversational informality, letters should never transcend the bounds of courtesy and good breeding. Joking is usually out of place, because the humor may be misunderstood and misapplied. Conversely, a letter cannot show the nuances of the speaker's voice and the expression of his face which turn into a joke what otherwise might be a stinging gibe.

(*d*) *Good Style.* Letters should be well composed from the point of view of good English. (Some time ago we received a letter from

the proud executive of an agency which was building a new institution. The letter read, "We are just putting up our petitions." Presumably his "petitions" were not to the Lord but were to separate one client from another.) There should be variety in the style. Striking words should not be repeated unnecessarily; rather, synonyms should be used to give grace and variety.

(*e*) *Getting the Recipient's Point of View.* A good way to begin a letter is to repeat significant words of the letter which is being answered. If, for example, the correspondent has written, "My wife has been sick and I have been unable to pay my pledge," the reply might read, "We are very sorry indeed to learn that your wife has been sick." The correspondent may go further and express the sympathy which should be the attitude of every social agency, and say, "We hope that she will soon be entirely well and that your financial difficulties will disappear. We well know the stress under which you find yourself at the present time. While we hope that you will be in a position to pay your pledge ultimately for the sake of those less fortunate than yourself, we shall be happy to postpone payment until that time which will be most convenient to you. How would it be if we sent you no more bills until September 1?"

(*f*) *Letter Appraisal Chart.* Important points are well summarized in the following letter appraisal chart which serves as the introduction to *Writing for the Social Security Board,* published by the Federal Security Agency:

LETTER APPRAISAL CHART

Before appraising a letter, be sure to determine its exact purpose. What response is desired from the addressee?

Can you answer "Yes" to these questions?
Is the letter:

1. Complete—
   a. Does it give all information necessary to accomplish its purpose?
   b. Does it answer fully all the questions, asked or implied?
2. Concise—
   a. Does the letter include only the essential facts?
   b. Are the ideas expressed in the fewest words consistent with clearness, completeness, and courtesy; have irrelevant details and unnecessary repetition been eliminated?
3. Clear—
   a. Is the language adapted to the vocabulary of the addressee?
   b. Do the words exactly express the thought?
   c. Is the sentence structure clear?
   d. Is each paragraph one complete thought unit?

e. Are the paragraphs arranged in proper sequence; are the ideas presented in the most effective order?

4. Correct—
   a. Is the accuracy of all factual information beyond question?
   b. Are all statements in strict conformity with policies?
   c. Is the letter free from: (1) grammatical errors, (2) spelling errors, (3) misleading punctuation?
5. Appropriate in Tone—
   a. Is the tone calculated to bring about the desired response?
   b. Is the letter free from antagonistic words or phrases?
   c. Is it free from hackneyed or stilted phrases which may amuse or irritate the addressee?
   d. Does the entire letter evidence a desire to co-operate fully?
6. Neat and Well Set Up—
   Will a favorable first impression be created by: (1) freedom from strike-overs and obvious erasures; (2) even typing; (3) position on page?

How effective is the letter as a whole?

To what extent is the letter likely to accomplish its purpose, obtain the desired response, and build good will? In other words, how do you rate its general effectiveness—Outstanding? Good? Passable? Unsatisfactory?

(*g*) *When Are Letters Unnecessary?* Even though the burden of correspondence is often a heavy one, the social agency should guard against following too closely the assertion of some business executives that too many letters are written. Although it may be that in some businesses the acknowledgment of a letter received or a courtesy rendered is unnecessary, it is wise in social work to seize every legitimate opportunity for creating good will by a written recognition of services and courtesies. Letters of appreciation or acknowledgment of information supplied, of questionnaires filled out, or of other services need not be lengthy. As a matter of fact, one or two short discriminating sentences will often suffice. The extra labor, stationery, and postage for such little extra touches—"unnecessary" but desirable—if mixed with discretion, clarity, and brevity bring back in good will many times the slight cost which is involved.

(*h*) *Carbon Copies.* Letters have a definite value as a record of what the dictator, as his agency's representative, wishes to record regarding its policies and activities as stated to another agency or individual. More than that, letters record for the agency, through carbon copies, what it has been committed to through correspondence.

Carbon copies involve extra expense in the cost of carbon and copy paper and the extra time of inserting them in the typewriter. This expense, however, can be considerably reduced in three ways:

First, there is no need for carbon copies of letters that are so purely routine and unimportant that no record need be kept.

Second, the cost of carbon paper may be considerably reduced if it is used as long as it will make good copies and not discarded as soon as it is slightly dimmed or develops a few wrinkles. The cost may be reduced further if tests are made to determine the kind of carbon paper which will give the most copies at the least cost. When the standard carbon paper has been decided upon, an additional saving can usually be made by purchasing coupon books good for the delivery of a certain number of sheets of the carbon paper.

Third, copy paper can be dispensed with, in most cases, by making the carbon copy of the reply on the back of the letter which is being answered. If the original letter is put into the typewriter upside down, the name and address to which the reply is being written can be seen so that the typist can transcribe them correctly. When, on the other hand, the letter answered is of a different size from the stationery being used, or when the letter dictated is not an answer but represents an original communication, copy on copy paper must be made. In the average agency, this procedure should eliminate half the carbon copies which usually bulge the file, should save the expense of much filing equipment and copy paper, and should make it impossible for the carbon copy to become separated from the original letter. It is one of those simple procedures which hardly seems worth mentioning, but which, surprisingly enough, is not followed to any large extent either by social agencies or business concerns. (We first mentioned this idea sixteen years ago in this book's predecessor, *Social Work Administration.* We are pained occasionally to visit agencies which display copies of that book but still make carbon copies in the old-fashioned, wasteful way!)

(*i*) *Let Typists Do Copying.* A further economy in the cost of handling correspondence is possible if the office force is so organized that typists are available to handle any work that requires a large amount of copying which would otherwise have to be done by stenographers or dictating machine operators. In this way the lower-paid typists handle the routine typing, and the more highly paid transcribers and secretaries handle the dictation which they alone can do.

FILING CORRESPONDENCE AND RECORDS. The social agency which applies the above practices in the dictation and copying of its correspondence (and its case records) still has the problem of keeping this material in such shape that it can be easily and quickly found when

wanted. To meet this problem every agency must have an adequate filing system for its correspondence and case records.

(*a*) *Central Filing System.* Usually the filing system is embodied in a central filing department. In it is kept all the material which may be needed by members of the staff, with the strict understanding that none of it is to be kept in their personal files or drawers.

(*b*) *Work Up to Date.* To be effective, the filing must be kept up to date. All the material should be filed each day so that it can be instantly located. If the file clerk cannot keep up with this work, other duties which she may have must be delegated to someone else, or a better file clerk must be secured, or an additional part-time or full-time clerk must be provided.

(*c*) *Competent File Clerks.* Filing is so vital a part of the work of a social agency office that in the larger organizations it should be handled by specially trained clerks, with actual experience in fast and accurate work of this kind. They must know the filing system and be able to follow it. They must use good sense in filing the material in the correct place so that it can be easily found by someone else if necessary. They should know something of the work of the organization so that they will understand the nature of the correspondence to be filed. Then they can file it correctly and not by some system of guesswork known only to themselves.

A good file clerk can be an invaluable aid in providing, completely and quickly, information which the organization needs. On the other hand, a poor file clerk can make out of a good filing system a miscellaneous grab bag, of no value to anyone and an actual impediment to the progress of the agency.

Filing clerks should therefore be carefully chosen, trained, and supervised. They should be paid enough and treated well enough to insure their remaining on the job rather than shifting to some other organization about the time they begin to be really useful. Filing is not merely a routine job but a creative service. It need not be a full-time job, but the person who handles it as well as other work must live up primarily to the job requirements on filing. It is vital!

(*d*) *An Adequate System.* The filing system itself must also be adequate. It would be unwise in such a book as this to prescribe any particular system. It must be adjusted to fit the needs of the individual organization. Preferably the system should be the result of conferences between the executive who supervises it and representatives of competent dealers in filing equipment. However, a few principles which should be followed may be worth stating.

One of these is that adequate cross references are essential. This means that in addition to filing a piece of correspondence, memoranda which refer to it should be filed in every other place where the material might be sought. For example, in a community chest office, a letter from one of the member organizations regarding plans for a building fund campaign might be filed under the name of the organization. In addition, there should be a cross reference in a folder on "Building Campaigns" or "Capital Accounts Committee." Again, a letter might mention several different subjects, such as plans for a capital accounts campaign, request for change in a current expense budget, and plans for an annual meeting. This letter would probably be filed under the name of the organization; then, in addition to the cross reference sheet in the "Capital Accounts" folder, similar cross references should be put in the folders on "Budget Committee" and "Annual Meeting."

Another device that will greatly simplify filing procedure is to put in the file an "out" card or a "charge" slip, which describes what has been removed and who has it, whenever a folder or document is taken out. This procedure will make possible the prompt location of the missing material and may prevent a great deal of fruitless and vexatious searching.

(e) *Keep the File Clerk Responsible.* In order to enforce the responsibility of the file clerk, the organization should make an invariable rule that no one except the file clerk shall take anything from the files or return anything to them. All requests for material should be made to the clerk, and all material should be returned to him for filing. Only in this way can responsibility be centralized and the possibility of error reduced to reasonable proportions.

In order that executives of the agency may get needed material outside of office hours, they should be schooled in the filing system. When they withdraw anything from the files, they should be required to sign a memorandum and leave it on the file clerk's desk. Material thus taken should be returned to the file clerk and not to the file—it might be put in the wrong place.

(f) *Annual House Cleaning.* A primary necessity for effective filing is at least an annual house cleaning during which all the material not likely to be needed is cleared out. Material which is certainly of no value may be thrown away. That which is of uncertain value may be put in inexpensive transfer files or in suitably labeled boxes. Transfer files and boxes need not be kept in the general office but can be put in the stock room until perhaps a year later,

when they may be inspected again and further stripped of non-essentials. While the file clerk is doing this house cleaning he should give to all executives the material which pertains to their work and about which he is not sure, asking them to dispose of everything that need not be preserved. In this way great quantities of out-of-date material can be discarded, the purchase of new files postponed, and the process of finding material in the files greatly simplified.

(*g*) *Only File What Will Be Needed.* The annual file cleaning can be greatly reduced in intensity if all those who send material to the files are instructed to send only that which they are reasonably sure will need to be referred to again. Much routine correspondence can be thrown away when answered. The primary test should be whether anybody will want to refer to the material again and, if so, whether finding it or not will make any difference in the policies and practices of the organization. The cutting down of material to be filed saves filing equipment and floor space. In addition, it saves time in filing, in looking for material that is wanted, and eventually in clearing out the files.

Some organizations require—whenever anything except correspondence that affects their procedures, such as clippings, pamphlets, and printed matter, is to be filed—that the individual who wishes to have this material filed must attach to it an outline of its further possible use. Such a requirement greatly reduces the enthusiasm of some individuals who usually send to the file everything they think might be used sometime under some hypothetical but non-existent circumstances. The file should hold everything in the way of records, correspondence, and information which will enable the organization to do its work more expeditiously and effectively, but it should not contain a single thing that does not contribute to that result.

(*h*) *Methods of Classification.* It hardly seems necessary to discuss various methods of classifying the material to be filed, because they vary so greatly from organization to organization according to the needs of each. Still, it might be well to outline here a few of the main types of classification.

The simplest method is the alphabetical, corresponding to the arrangement of names in the city directory or the telephone directory. This classification is likely to be the most satisfactory for a large majority of social agencies. Sometimes the alphabetical files may be subdivided according to the particular kind of material filed. The subsidiary material would be filed alphabetically within each classification.

For example, a community chest might put in one section of its file material concerning its member organizations, arranged alphabetically by name. Another section would contain correspondence with contributors; another, general correspondence, also alphabetically arranged according to subject; still another, out-of-town social agencies and individuals, with a different folder for each city arranged alphabetically.

Another system of filing often used is the numerical. In it correspondence or records are numbered serially as received and filed in that order. This system requires an alphabetical cross index on cards, usually 3 by 5 inches in size. On these are recorded the numbers of the files so that each can be located.

An organization with detailed case records would have its own filing system for handling this voluminous material so essential to effective work. Usually case records are filed numerically in chronological order, with a card index by names filed alphabetically.

A variation of the numerical system is the chronological tickler file, arranged by days of the month. There is a folder for each day. Into the folders are put memoranda and letters which are to come to the attention of staff members on specified days. Each day the file clerk removes the material for that day and distributes it among those responsible for handling it. This plan might either replace or supplement the individual tickler system already described. (It would not replace *our* tickler system. There is too much in it!)

A modification of the numerical system may be desirable for the filing of pamphlets, clippings, and similar material. This modification is known as the Dewey Decimal System and is used generally in libraries. In it the digits, tenths, hundredths, and thousandths refer to the main classifications and sub-classifications. The social agency which adopts this system will probably find it wise to make its own numerical classifications to correspond with the kinds of material to be filed. A main heading might be Child Welfare, number 1. Under this classification Child Health might be 1.1; Dependent Children, 1.2; Dependent Children in Foster Homes, 1.21, and so on. A decimal file, though useful in combining related material for research purposes, would probably have to be used with an alphabetical subject file which indicated the classification under which each subject was filed. This system seems unnecessarily intricate for the average social agency.

In general, the alphabetical system or some modification of it is usually the best for correspondence. The chronological numerical system may well be best for heavily laden case records. It is an awful

job to keep moving them around to make room for new records in an alphabetical system. Better start at the beginning and "leave 'em lay" where they fall by dates.

Another method of classification sometimes used, especially by social agencies engaged in state-wide work, is the geographical method. In it correspondence and records are filed according to the communities or counties to which they refer.

The important point about all these filing systems is that the social agency should study its own particular problem, consult with the best available authorities as to filing methods, select that method which seems best suited to its needs, and then follow it thoroughly and intelligently.

(*i*) *Enough Guides.* A great help to effective filing is an adequate supply of guides to indicate the subdivisions of the file. Guides expedite and facilitate the finding of filed material. Within the limits of expense and complexity, the more guides there are the more easily and quickly the desired material can be found. Standards often used are one guide for every thirty cards in the file, and for correspondence twenty-four guides for each drawer. Thus, if a card file included 30,000 cards, there should be 1,000 subdivision guides. It is probably better to have too many guides than too few. Although having too many adds unnecessary expense, this is offset to some extent by the greater speed in finding the material needed. If the guides are too few, the saving in money is outweighed by the time and difficulty of finding material. Just as no filing system is better than its operator, so also no filing system is better than its guides.

(*j*) *Filing Reports, Pamphlets, and the Like.* Almost every active social agency is likely to possess a considerable amount of printed and duplicated matter, including annual reports of other organizations, reports of surveys and studies and similar data, clippings from newspapers and magazines, and much other material pertinent to its work and potentially useful either for the preparation of reports and publicity material or for the information of committee members. Any material which by being folded or pasted on sheets of paper can be reduced or raised to the standard size of 8½ by 11 inches can be satisfactorily filed.

All such auxiliary material is usually bulky and ordinarily not in active use and therefore does not belong in the general files. Instead, it can be kept in cardboard boxes, filed in folders arranged by subjects within each box and with the type of subject matter indicated by label on the outside of the box. The boxes may be further classi-

fied by number. A card index of all material so filed should be maintained, arranged alphabetically by subjects, with the box number on each card. These boxes may be kept (on end) in a bookcase or on storage shelves. Beside them may be placed the bulkier reports and books which cannot be put in the boxes. Such material can be identified by numbers pasted on the back of each item and by corresponding cards in the subject file. By these devices all the floating material to which any member of the organization may have legitimate claim for reference may be kept out of the regular correspondence files and yet be available for quick inspection.

Our own personal attitude is that most of this stuff is junk and should be "filed" in the waste basket. Usually the best reference material is the store of knowledge and experience cached away in the miraculous filing system of one's brain, plus the few reference works mentioned in the chapter on office equipment. We did know a fellow, though, who compounded all his solemn and much-respected articles for professional magazines from clippings and pamphlets, intermixed in judicious proportion. He could whip up an article at any time from his carefully indexed idea pantry.

In addition to this varied literature which the squirrel-minded may wish to preserve, the department of public relations may want to keep a miscellaneous collection of photographs of board members, campaign workers, and other officials, as well as of photogenic and acquiescent clients of the social agency. (Be sure you have written releases from clients before you use their pictures.) Photographs can usually be filed in boxes according to subject, much as are the samples of printed matter and clippings just described, provided the size is not larger than 8½ by 11 inches. If they are larger, the mount can perhaps be trimmed down by the file clerk with the consent of the director of public relations. If the photograph cannot be cut down to the proper size for filing, it should not be filed in the regular filing cabinets; the public relations department should be responsible for keeping it.

The public relations department is usually the prime mover in keeping half-tone or line cuts on file. If the cuts will actually be used again, they should be filed in a cabinet with horizontal drawers of the same height as the cuts. These drawers should be numbered. A proof of each cut filed alphabetically by subject should bear the number of the drawer in which the cut can be found (if not borrowed and unreturned).

The original cut is usually used only once. Ordinarily the best

procedure with one-use cuts is to have the copper or zinc pried loose from the wooden block to which the cut is attached. When enough of the metal has been accumulated it can be sold to the photoengraver at pound rate. If this is not done, an active and retentive director of public relations may accumulate a vast quantity of bulky half-tones and line cuts which are of no conceivable use and merely clutter up the agency's office.

"Stock" cuts, such as those of the seal of the organization or any other standard pictorial device, should of course be preserved. If electrotypes are made of them, the original cut need not be worn out.

CARD FILES. Cards of various sorts must be filed in almost every social agency office. They may include cross indices to the correspondence; indices to case records, perhaps imprinted with forms for the accumulation of statistical data; lists of contributors and members; lists of vendors of desired commodities; a stock record of the items in the store room; a list of all furniture and equipment owned; lists of committee members, board members, and (in larger organizations) staff members; lists of community resources such as agencies, churches, and other groups and persons with which and whom (how's that, Mr. Webster?) co-operation may be expected; lists of volunteer workers; lists of similar organizations in other cities, and so on.

(a) *Combination Files.* It is not always necessary to keep a separate card file for each list of persons. If a number of lists are used, on each of which several identical names appear, these lists may be combined so that each name appears only once. The different lists on which a name may belong may be indicated by different-colored cards, by tabs of various colors, or by signals clipped to the tops of the cards.

(b) *Use of Tabs or Guides.* A great deal of information can be supplied by means of tabs, guides, or signals of different shapes and colors clipped to the upper edges of cards—through the position of these signals, their color, and their shape. Thus in a file of statistical cards for a family society the signals may indicate the size of the family; the race, religion, and social status; whether the mother was widowed or deserted, and other similar information; the social problems manifested; and whether the family concerned is an "open" or a "closed" case. Contributors might similarly be "signaled" as to the size and year of their gifts; their special interests; whether their last subscription was an increase over that of the previous year, a decrease, or the same amount; whether the subscription is a new one

or an old one; whether payment has been made; when the next payment should be made; when the next letter of request or renewal should be sent out, and so forth. Anyone who is setting up signals for a card filing system will do well to confer with the representative of a competent dealer in filing supplies to find out what systems and equipment best meet the problems of the agency. The use of tabs presumes that the ordinary "blind" or vertical files are used. These suffice for most social agencies.

Visible files, however, may justify the extra expense involved, through the greater speed of finding material, if the information is sufficiently important and if the cards are used often enough. Guides as to the different classifications may be indicated by strips of celluloid of various colors and other devices put over or fastened on the cards. See the dealer; he will love to tell you about them—and to quote prices.

(*c*) *Size of Cards.* Attention should be given to the size of the cards used. Manifestly the larger the card the more expensive it is and the more expensive and bulky the equipment for its use.

It would seem almost unnecessary to caution the person who is installing a card system to use cards of standard size so that economies in the purchase of material and equipment can be made. Yet we have seen striking examples of failure to take this precaution. The result was that costly equipment had to be built to order, and considerable paper stock was wasted in cutting the cards.

The standard sizes of cards are 3 by 5 inches, 4 by 6 inches, and 5 by 8 inches. The size of the card should be determined in part by the quantity of material to be put on it. For example, a mere cross index to the case records of a family society would probably be carried satisfactorily on a 3 by 5 inch card. On the other hand, a complicated statistical card, or one for recording contributions of a subscriber over a number of years, might require the 4 by 6 size.

(*d*) *Exact Size Important.* Great care should be taken to have the cards cut exactly the size of the file for which they are intended. The size of the card should be carefully specified and the printer's proof closely checked. (Some printers are inexact!) If possible, the cards should be die-cut rather than trimmed by the usual paper cutter. Die-cut cards fit the filing equipment exactly. Further, because of their regularity of size, they contribute to the ease and speed of separating, sorting, and counting.

(*e*) *Weight and Quality.* The weight and the quality of the card, as well as its size, should be considered.

For some purposes, when a card is to be used only infrequently or

for a short time, a cheap, thin card or perhaps heavy, stiff paper may be used. Paper, however, is sometimes difficult to handle because successive sheets stick together when they are being sorted.

On the other hand, a permanent record that is handled a great deal and must stand erasure and other treatment should be on thicker, tougher, more expensive paper, perhaps made of rag rather than of wood pulp.

In making some lists it is necessary to produce an extra copy of the record. In this event the card stock should be light enough to transmit a clear impression to the material on which the copy is made.

If the cards are to be run through a typewriter and the stock is stiff, cards should be cut with the grain running horizontally rather than vertically so that they will go easily around the typewriter roller without breaking, cracking, or sliding. On the other hand, if the card stock is light it may be desirable to have the grain run up and down so that the cards will stand up sturdily in the file without bending or sagging.

In each case, test the proposed card stock under conditions which as nearly as possible approximate the desired use. Choose the stock which meets these standards of service at the lowest cost.

(*f*) *Card Forms Simple.* If record forms are to be printed on the cards, the forms should be as simple as possible. They should demand only essential information. As far as possible the data should be entered on the cards with check marks rather than in complicated writing. For example, a list of possible nationalities printed on a card, on which the appropriate one may be indicated with a check mark, will save a great deal of time in recording information. In the same way, possible membership numbers can be printed and the actual number checked.

FORMS AND THEIR USES. Many forms in addition to those on cards must be used in the ordinary social agency office—for example, face sheets for case records, various statistical forms, and financial report forms. The same general principles apply to all of them.

(*a*) *Standard Sizes.* They should be cut to a standard size which will fit card files, if they are to be filed as cards; or to the regular 8½ by 11 inch, if they are larger than cards. Social agencies often mistakenly make their forms of some odd size.

Anathema to us is the undeservedly popular legal size of 8½ by 14 inches. If forms of this size are to be filed in the regular files, those forms must be folded to the standard size. This bulges the files

unevenly. Of course if you have legal-size files, 8½ by 14 is O.K.—but how many social agencies have such filing cases? Not many that we have seen! Better stick to 8½ by 11 inches for both files and paper.

While we are on this subject of size we might as well express our own uncomplimentary opinion of half-size letterheads. They bunch up in the files, and they require special adjustments in making carbon copies. The agency has to have standard-sized letterheads as well, and the extra cost of typography and press work for two different letterheads probably exceeds the saving in paper cost. We say 8½ by 11 for all of them.

Some forms that are too large for an 8½ by 11 inch sheet can be made on a double sheet 11 by 17 and folded in the middle to the standard size. In other words, if the form is not of standard size, it should be two, three, or four times that size so that it can be folded evenly to fit the standard filing equipment.

(*b*) *Economy in Cutting Forms.* Another consideration in the size of forms is to have them of such a size that they will cut economically out of standard paper sizes. The person who orders the forms should either know these standard sizes or find out about them from the printer who is to do the job. The printer and the paper salesman can be valuable allies of the social agency in planning economical printed matter and forms.

Some time ago we tried ineffectually to soothe a printing salesman who was having trouble with a social agency. He could have saved it considerable money had the executive been willing to take his advice on the sizes of forms, the quality and weight of paper, and so on. This the executive refused to do, telling the salesman that his job was to fill orders as given. (Come to think of it, we believe this executive no longer is in social work.)

(*c*) *Uniformity in Forms.* All the forms for a given purpose should be uniform in size and shape, for convenience in sorting and filing. For harmony's sake, they might be uniform in color and typography. You may as well make them look nice, while you are at it.

(*d*) *Variety in Color.* On the other hand, color can be used effectively to differentiate between forms for different uses. If one copy of an order is to be sent to the auditor, one to the receiving clerk, one to the person who issued the requisition, and one to the firm from which the goods are purchased, a different color of paper can be used for each of these copies so as to indicate its intended destination.

(*e*) *Spacing and Organization of Material.* It is important in a form that is to be filled in on the typewriter to make the spaces between the lines either a single or a double typewriter space (one-sixth inch or one-third inch) apart, so that the form can be run through the machine without careful adjustment for each line. This spacing can usually be insured by instructing the printer to make the lines "typewriter spacing." It is well, however, to check him up on this. We have a handy ruler marked off in typewriter spacing for this purpose.

Another means of saving time in typing information on forms is to have all the figures, as much as possible, typed across the form on one line. The figures can thus be filled in without turning the typewriter roller, merely by setting the tabulating stops for each successive item on the form. This crosswise arrangement is better than to have the figures run down the form, with the consequent necessity of turning the roller for each item. In one operation we know—in making out bills—the horizontal progression saved half the actual time of typing.

MISCELLANEOUS ECONOMIES. In addition to care in planning and using forms, many other economies are possible in a social agency office. Though unimportant individually, they total up to a great deal in the course of a year. It would seem silly to mention them here were it not that observation has shown them to be overlooked in so many offices. Among these economies are the following:

Instead of ordering from the printer everything required in the way of forms, do as many as possible on the mimeograph, ditto, or multilith if there is one already installed in the office.

Have ledger cards or other record cards, which must be used over a long period of years, printed on both sides so that when one side is filled the other can be used and the earlier data retained.

Instruct the employees to turn off electric lights, fans, and other power-consuming equipment when not in use—and enforce the instructions.

Have the printer cut up out-of-date letterheads, extra notices, and other forms no longer of any value into 3 by 5 inch slips and use them for ticklers and memoranda. The fact that one side has been used does not prevent the use of the other.

These and similar efforts at economy are worth more than their face value. They help to promote an attitude toward saving and the efficient use of material in the whole organization which prevents waste and promotes painstaking endeavor.

This counsel does not mean that corners should be cut when going around the block is the best way to attain a desired result, or that stinginess should replace productive expenditure. It does mean that a social agency, as the trustee of contributed or public funds, is responsible for saving every penny possible and for not spending one cent unless responsible assurance is given that an adequate return in effective service is to be derived from that expenditure.

QUESTIONS

1. What successful methods for handling correspondence have you observed in some business organization or social agency?

2. How does that procedure check with the Letter Appraisal Chart?

3. What policy was followed in regard to "unnecessary" correspondence?

4. How were carbon copies handled?

5. How was the work of typing material to be copied divided up?

6. How was the filing handled?

7. What qualifications did the file clerks possess?

8. What filing system was followed?

9. How were the files cleared of out-of-date material?

10. What restriction was put upon material to be filed?

11. How many guides were used in proportion to the number of folders?

12. How were reports, pamphlets, photographs, cuts, and similar material filed?

13. What kinds of card files were in use?

14. What use was made of tabs, signals, or guides?

15. What sizes of cards were used, and why?

16. What considerations determined the weight and the quality of the card stock?

17. What principles were followed in the forms printed on the cards?

18. What principles were followed in the other forms used?

19. What miscellaneous devices and methods were used in this office for doing the work efficiently?

20. How do you think any of these processes and devices might have been improved?

Chapter XX

Routing and Transportation of Workers

HOW THE OFFICE MAY HELP IN ROUTING. Much has been said about economical operation within the office. In addition, the social agency usually has to consider its external operations from the point of view of economy. The question of the quality and quantity of professional service is beyond the scope of this book, but we must consider here the routing of field workers, nurses, and other professional workers, which often has to be planned in the agency office.

Workers should be helped to make their calls outside the office as quickly and as easily as possible. Often social workers are assigned on a district basis, and each worker is put in charge of a definite area. Even then, the supervisor has to make sure that the work is distributed fairly evenly. Further, he must see that no time is wasted in traveling on circuitous routes. Unless there is some reason for emergency calls, the workers should cover their territories with as little lost time and effort as possible. Some social agencies provide each worker with a small street guide of the city and a map on which routes may be planned. The route for each day may be discussed by a new worker with the supervisor. Sometimes work can be planned ahead for a whole week, so that each day the worker can cover a different part of his territory.

PIN MAPS OF VISITS. Much time in the actual visiting of clients and the cost of transportation can be saved by careful routing. In order to present graphically the problem of routing, the supervisor may indicate with pins on a map the addresses on which the nurse or visitor calls. The pins may be connected with strings, in the order in which the calls have been made, to show how much zigzagging and retracing there was. The most efficient route possible in view of available transportation systems can then be indicated by another string for the same group of calls.

The secretary of a family society has stated that in his larger districts cases were assigned to a considerable extent on the basis of their proximity to other families visited by the same worker. Mem-

bers of the staff were expected to plan their day's visits before leaving the office.

ALLOWANCE FOR PUBLIC TRANSPORTATION. The routing of workers raises the important question of transportation cost. Practically all social agencies pay this. In some agencies the staff member pays his own car or bus fare and turns in a bill each week or month for the amount spent. In other agencies the workers are given car or bus tokens to use on their visits. In some cities public transportation systems sell weekly passes, and the purchase of these may be an economy for the agency. Any number of workers may use one pass.

WHEN TO USE AN AUTOMOBILE. The automobile also is a vital factor in the transportation of social workers. No uniform rule has yet been worked out for its use, because the arrangements vary so much from agency to agency. Some organizations determine by actual experiment the difference in cost between transportation by street car or bus and by automobile. To this they add the value of the additional time available for actual visiting if the worker uses an automobile. They purchase or arrange to rent a car only when a clear saving is shown. (Our remarks, of course, apply to normal times and not to those of post-war shortages.)

In some organizations it is to be suspected that the enthusiasm for owning an automobile has run away with considerations of economy. In a congested district a car presents problems of parking—to say nothing of the expense of operation as compared with either walking or taking the street car or bus—which make operation of an automobile inadvisable. On the other hand, where transportation lines are poor and do not cover the main areas of agency service, or where the area to be covered is large and the cases widely scattered, an automobile may prove a good investment.

Before the organization goes to the expense of purchasing a car or making a worker an allowance for the use of his own, it is wise to consider whether equal advantages cannot be secured by renting "drive-your-self" cars or using taxicabs, either on a charge account or by the purchase of coupon books. This may afford a considerable saving. It is difficult to operate a machine, if depreciation is counted as a cost, for less than $50 a month. That sum buys a great deal of taxicab or "drive-your-self" riding. Although a social worker who had to lecture or attend meetings at night might like to have the agency buy a car for him, it might be found an economy to have him use taxicabs rather than burden the organization with the cost of owning and operating an automobile.

METHODS OF FINANCING AUTOMOBILE USE. Where the operation of a car by the agency is clearly demonstrated as an economy from the point of view of the saving in time and money, the question of the basis of operation will still have to be considered.

(*a*) *Allowance for Use of Workers' Cars.* In some organizations the workers buy their own cars. There are two chief ways of reimbursing the worker for the use of his car. First, he may be given a flat allowance, say $25 a month, based on an estimate of the average cost of operation in the interests of the agency. Second, he may be given a mileage allowance based on his statement as to the places he has gone and the distance he has covered on agency business as read directly from the speedometer and recorded in writing.

Common mileage allowance until after the Second World War was from five to ten cents a mile—generally the lower figure. The pre-war experience of several large corporations and groups of social agencies indicated that fleets of automobiles of moderate cost and good quality could be operated for as low as five or six cents a mile, including all costs of insurance, taxes, gasoline, oil, tires, interest on the investment, depreciation, and garage rent. Single cars owned by agencies might cost more because of less expert care and less concentrated use.

One advantage of mileage reimbursement is that the owner-operator is careful to keep costs down and not to misuse the car. He knows if it wears out he has to replace it. If the expense runs over the mileage allowance he has to make good the difference. This arrangement also makes it possible for him to use the car for his own personal needs without any danger of criticism. Furthermore, the cost of operating the car for personal activities is reduced, because the agency shares the fixed charges.

Instead of making a definite allowance by miles or by the month, one visiting nurse organization has reported that, in the smaller districts where the value of a car is not clearly demonstrated and the nurses want to drive their own cars for convenience, it allows for automobile expense what would have been spent for bus fare in making the same visits.

We are strongly in favor of the mileage plan as against the flat allowance. We have had several experiences with staff members who requested large automobile allowances. Their ideas (not the tires) were deflated when a mileage basis was authorized. The boys did not drive as much as they thought they did. Moreover, an economy-minded employee, given a flat allowance, may save himself money

but cost the agency time by using a bus or street car when he ought to be driving the car.

(*b*) *When the Agency Owns the Car.* Another situation exists when the organization buys the car and pays the expense of operation. Such an arrangement may be justified. Difficulties tend to arise, however, through careless operation of the car and through its unauthorized use for personal purposes after office hours. Both of these abuses incur extra cost for the agency. In the case of authorized personal use, it may be desirable to charge the worker at a cost-per-mile rate.

Some social agencies keep their cars in a central garage. From it workers take the cars in the morning and to it they return the cars at the close of the day's work. This arrangement provides for adequate control, but it may mean a considerable loss of time for the worker (and for the agency) in his going to and from the garage.

(*c*) *Helping the Worker to Buy a Car.* In order to make it possible for a worker to own a car, if he has no cash, social agencies have been known to advance him the purchase price (ceiling, not black market) and let him pay for it out of the mileage allowance. For example, if he drove the car 700 miles a month on agency business, at the rate of 7 cents a mile he would receive $49 from the agency. If an arrangement of this nature is made, however, the organization should have a contract, so that if the worker leaves its employ he would either turn back the car or pay the balance due.

(*d*) *Kind of Car to Be Purchased.* The purchase of standard makes of cars, with large and responsible corporations behind them and with the prospect of continued operation before them, so that expert repair service and good resale value may be assured, is obviously desirable. Everything else considered, the car produced by the company with the largest resources for research purposes and economical manufacture should give the best automobile value per dollar.

Certainly the social agency should avoid the appearance of extravagance and ostentation and should have in mind the use planned for the car. For example, it is only considerate to use an inexpensive car for field workers or nurses who work in poor neighborhoods where an expensive car in front of a client's door would be conspicuous. On the other hand, the car the executive uses to take distinguished visitors about the city and in going himself to the homes and offices of persons of circumstance should probably be of a better class.

The use to which the car is to be put will also make a difference in the model chosen. A nurse or field worker who has to carry around a considerable amount of equipment will probably find a coupé with a rear storage compartment best suited to her needs. A medical social worker who has to take children and their parents to clinics might find a two-door sedan best for carrying the gang and keeping the kids from falling out.

(e) Life of a Car. The probable life of an automobile is difficult to estimate. Much depends on the kind of car, the number of people who drive it and their different methods of driving, the care with which they drive it, the frequency with which the car is serviced—greased, tightened, and adjusted—and the severity of use to which it is subjected. Thus an automobile continually in use on city streets or on good paved roads in the suburban districts would probably last considerably longer and cost less to operate than would the same car driven over rough country roads. Before the war it often seemed that private owners of automobiles turned in their old machines on new ones more frequently than was economically necessary. A great deal of money can be spent on new tires, new batteries, painting, and general repairs which are necessary to put an old car in first-class shape, before this cost amounts to as much as the depreciation (estimated at 40 per cent of the cost price) which must be charged off on a new car in the first year of its life. The solution seems to be to keep a careful record of the cost of operation and to turn the car in on a new one when the cost of further operation would be greater than the heavy depreciation on a new car.

(f) Second-hand Cars. The purchase of second-hand cars is not generally recommended unless the agency can be certain that the car has been carefully run by its first owner and is in good shape mechanically. Our own practice "before the war" was to buy a good two-year-old used car from a reliable dealer, drive the car two years, and then turn it in on another two-year-old car.

Demonstration cars that have been used by automobile salesmen could in the good old days be purchased at a considerable saving, especially after a new model had been brought out. Perhaps that scheme may again be practicable.

(g) Economy in Automobile Supplies. Considerable money can be saved in the operation of a car through careful and judicious buying of supplies. Any social agency in normal times should be able to purchase tires at wholesale rather than retail prices. The driver should be instructed to keep the tires properly inflated to insure as long a

life as possible. One executive we know instructed each field worker to walk around the car once every time he intended to drive it and make sure that each tire was well inflated. That executive claimed he operated his fleet of two-years-old-when-purchased cars for three cents a mile.

Sometimes a saving has been possible in buying gasoline, either by getting it wholesale and storing it in the garage if the agency has a number of cars, by purchasing coupon books at a discount, or by arranging for charge accounts at a discount with a reputable firm. Oil can be bought in drums at wholesale. Then the car can be filled at the agency's garage much more cheaply than at filling stations.

The social agency with a large number of cars operated either by itself or by its staff members can save a large amount on liability and collision insurance by insuring on the "fleet" basis.

In automobile operation, as in every other phase of social agency management, vigilance and good judgment can save money and make funds go farther than would otherwise be possible.

QUESTIONS

1. In some typical social agency which has workers in the field, how does the office help in routing them?

2. What use is made of pin maps for visits?

3. What allowance is made for bus and taxi fare?

4. How does this agency decide when to use an automobile?

5. If the agency is buying a car, how does it decide on what kind to purchase?

6. How does it determine when to buy a new car to replace an old one?

7. What arrangement is made with workers if they use their own cars?

8. What methods are followed in the purchase of supplies and in servicing?

9. How might any of these practices be improved?

Chapter XXI

Effective Accounting Methods

ESSENTIAL TO THE SOCIAL AGENCY. Every social agency has to handle money. Accurate and adequate methods of accounting for all money received and spent and of showing continuously the agency's financial condition are essential to carrying on its work intelligently. The work of the agency must be planned and administered with a knowledge of the funds available and likely to be available for the expenditures which have been made and are likely to be made. Dollars are one of the units for measuring service. The executive who would control the service of his organization must also control its finances.

The administrators of public agencies are enjoined by law, under heavy penalties, to keep their expenditures within the amounts and purposes of their appropriations. In order to keep within those limitations accurate, thorough, and current financial reports and controls are necessary. These are usually provided by the governmental accounting authority.

To the board of directors of the private agency, of which we shall speak primarily in this chapter, clear information regarding the agency's financial status is essential; the trustees of contributed funds must know continuously the status of those funds. Staff members also should be clearly informed of the agency's financial situation and should act as partners in the effort to secure economy and efficiency in expenditure.

Furthermore, careful accounting, with consequent reports on the income and outgo of funds, is the right and privilege of contributors who have supplied funds, whether they have given directly to the agency or through the community chest. The continuance and enlargement of public support rests to a considerable extent on the confidence of the community that funds are properly handled. This confidence is produced not only by the competence of the service rendered but also by adequate financial information.

A thoroughgoing accounting system, sufficiently detailed to give the necessary information to meet these needs yet sufficiently simple to keep to a minimum the cost of compiling the data, is essential to the conduct of the social agency.

ACCOUNTING AS A MEANS OF INTERPRETATION. A good accounting system for a social agency is more than a mere record of its financing. It is a means of interpreting the activities of the organization in terms of dollars. It should therefore be planned from the point of view of the financial facts needed by the executive, the staff members, the board members, and the general public.

The system used should be set up by competent accountants. In conference with the public relations advisers, the board, the executive, and even the staff, they will advise on routine methods of handling accounts. In this way, effective decisions can be made as to what classifications of income and expense are necessary to present a clear picture of the sources of the agency's funds, to give control over its activities, and to provide those who are interested and responsible with accurate and understandable information.

Naturally an accounting system should begin with those agency activities which have financial significance. It should be a "made-to-order" system devised to fit the individual agency. The basis of the system can often be found in the constitution or the bylaws, which may prescribe the sources of funds and the purposes for which they may be spent. Those documents will be supplemented in the properly conducted organization by a written description of the accounting system, a classification of accounts, and a statement of the procedure to be followed in accounting—all made a part of the statement of standard practices in the office manual. The accounting system must be an integral part of the organization's plan of operation.

If the agency is a member of a community chest, the accounting system is usually standardized to some extent for all the member agencies, so far as the material prescribed for monthly and annual financial reports is concerned. The chest should prepare a manual of accounting which includes a definition of each account classification used in its report forms. Each agency will use only those items which reflect its own financial experience. The use of common definitions of accounts makes possible valid comparisons between the income and expense of agencies; it also helps the chest budget committee in its consideration of agency budgets.

RECORD OF RECEIPTS. The creation of an accounting system might begin with a record of all receipts. This record would account as completely as possible for all the income of the organization.

All checks and currency as received should be listed in a day book or journal. In addition to the name of the person paying the money, each entry should also indicate the account to which it belongs—for example, Income from Investments, Membership Dues, Contributions, Refunds, Payments by Patients, Community Chest, and so on.

Cash payments should be recorded by a system of duplicate receipts, serially numbered in a bound book. The perforated original is given to the payee; the carbon copy is kept in the receipt book as a permanent record. The staff auditor or bookkeeper should audit the duplicate receipts daily. If one of the receipts is voided, the original copy should be stapled to the duplicate. Auditing is performed by running a total of the amounts on the bound carbon copies and comparing the total with the signed duplicate deposit slip and the cash receipts journal.

The distribution of these items can be handled either by posting each payment in a ledger on the particular page for each classification of income or by distributing it across the properly classified columns of the cash receipts journal, in which one column is assigned to each of the items of income which the agency wishes to record.

A variation of this system for larger social agencies may be found in the use of a remittance register—a machine which records each payment, distributes it to the proper account, and shows the amount received in each account. Each of the accounts may be subdivided into sections of the ledger if large numbers of payments are received from contributors.

Pledges of subscribers should be similarly reported as representing potential cash, and payments received should be credited against these accounts. Other accounts receivable, such as payments due from patients, should be handled in the same way, so that the balance available from any given source can be readily estimated at any time.

(*a*) *Classification of Receipts.* The classification of receipts depends on the nature of the agency, but it may include in general:

Income from earnings, such as payments by beneficiaries, by users of privileges, or by patients.

Profits from concessions and the like.

Income from investments and property, including interest on

stocks and bonds, rental from tenants of real estate, and similar payments for the use of property owned by the agency.

Membership fees not in the nature of payment for services rendered.

Direct gifts from contributors.

Payments from the community chest.

Receipts from public funds made as a contribution rather than for services rendered.

(*b*) *Gifts in Kind.* The agency may also wish to record the value of gifts in kind, as in the case of a children's institution which receives large contributions of canned goods and clothing. An entry of equal amount should then be made in the expenditures of the organization. In that way a complete picture is given of the expenses which would have been incurred if these donations in kind had not been received. The market value of the commodities is usually estimated.

(*c*) *Checking and Depositing Cash.* All cash received should immediately be deposited intact in the organization's name in the bank, and a deposit slip made out. To prevent any discrepancy the slips should be totaled separately from the day's cash receipts. The two totals should be checked. Any discrepancies should be followed up immediately so that any error may be rectified.

Never under any circumstances should any of the organization's funds be deposited except in the name of the organization and to its own account. Various difficulties have arisen when executives have deposited agency money to their own accounts and made payments on behalf of the organization with their own checks. Obviously in such cases it may be difficult to determine which payments the executive has made on his account and which on that of the agency.

Moreover, no cash received should be kept in the agency's office for a petty cash account. Neither should any refunds be made from the petty cash. They should be made by check to ensure proper accountability.

Competent, accurate, and up-to-date recording of all receipts is essential in proper accounting for a social agency.

(*d*) *Working from Source Material.* Good accounting procedure requires that records be made as far as possible from original source material. Thus pledges should be listed from the original pledge cards. In many agencies, too, payments are posted on those cards—both to prevent error in spelling, address, and amount, and to keep to a minimum the work of preparing records and the space required

for them. On the same principle, payments on bills may be posted at first hand direct from the bills to the pledge or ledger card, rather than at second hand from the list of payments on the daily cash sheet.

Yet many agencies, particularly community chests, are finding it an advantage to use mechanical posting and billing systems which require the setting up of individual ledger cards. A large agency may find it most economical to post payments from a carbon copy of the daily cash sheet. Each agency should study its needs and adopt the cheapest and most accurate system.

RECORD OF EXPENDITURES. Competent accounting for receipts is only part of the problem of effective accounting methods. Expenditure also must be recorded.

(*a*) *Classification of Accounts.* As has already been suggested, the beginning of a system lies in a classification of accounts, which will reveal the main classes of expense of the organization. This classification should cover the different types of expenditures, such as salaries, printing, postage, stationery, office supplies, automobile expense, carfare, food, fuel, clothing, rent for clients, and medical and nursing supplies. Good accounting will reduce as far as possible the amount hidden behind the item "Miscellaneous." It seems all too often to be a convenient pocket into which the careless accountant puts all the items which it is too much trouble to classify in detail or which he wants to cover up. Ordinarily all expenditures which total more than $50 during a year should be itemized.

(*b*) *Keeping Track of Petty Cash.* Minor expenses—such as express, messenger service paid in cash, payments for insufficient postage, collect telegrams, and the like—which occur infrequently and in small amounts and must be paid for at the time of delivery of the article, may be paid from the petty cash fund. Separate entry should be made of each item. The petty cash account should be guarded, as is cash income, by a duplicate receipt book. In it the nature of the expenditure is entered. To it the person who received the money signs his name. He is given the carbon copy; the serially numbered, signed original of the receipt remains in the book as a record of the expenditure. A check should be drawn when it is necessary to replenish this fund. The money should be kept in a locked drawer or in a special section of the safe. Separate accounts of all receipts and of all payments from the fund should be kept.

(*c*) *Use of Voucher Checks.* All expenditures other than those from petty cash should be handled by voucher checks. A good system

provides for each voucher to be made up of two equal parts. The upper half is a check; the lower half a description of the account for which the check is payment. There should be two carbon copies of each voucher check. In an alphabetical file should be kept the original bill, one carbon copy of the voucher, a copy of the original order for the goods, a copy of the receiving slip which shows that the goods have been received, the original invoice which came with the goods, and any other material—such as copies of correspondence—which affects that purchase. The other carbon copy of the voucher check should be kept in a numerical file, for ease in auditing and in locating any voucher regarding which question has arisen.

Frank E. Chapman offers the following advice:[1]

> Before a voucher is drawn, each of the following documents should be checked: the invoice against the original order to insure correctness of price, and against the receiving slip to insure correctness of amount of commodity billed; and the invoice itself for correctness of extension and footing. It is of primary importance in designing a voucher blank to adopt a form that will permit the easy segregation of the items vouchered to proper expense account. This is desirable both for ease of handling and for permanency of record. The number and name of the account having been noted on the voucher, it is an easy procedure to post from this form to the cash book and to distribute the expense to the proper departmental account in the operation.

(*d*) *Charging of Discounts.* When discounts are taken (as, for example, those allowed a social agency on a typewriter), the voucher should show the full amount of the invoice, the discount, and the net amount due and paid. Only the net amount would be charged against the account in the agency's books.

(*e*) *Analysis of Expenses by Departments.* Expenses should be accounted for, not only by type of expenditure but also, in a complex organization, according to the department for which the expenditure has been made. This departmentalized account of expense should cover all payments made on purchases, rentals, and other obligations, as well as the details of the pay roll, so that the salary cost for each department can be accurately known.

> Each supervisor or department head should be required to keep an accurate record of the time worked by the employees for whom he was responsible and to submit in advance of each pay day a statement of the exact amount to be paid each employee, with deductions for absence when such deductions are made and a report of any overtime for which compensation is to be paid. Time books may be purchased, divided on a

[1] *Hospital Organization and Operation*, pp. 53, 55. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1924.

daily, weekly, semi-monthly, or monthly basis, in which department heads can easily keep track of all employees who are paid on a daily basis. . . . The actual computing of this pay roll would impress vividly upon the head whether he has lived within his budget allowance. It will automatically provide another check as to accuracy, assuring that the accounting department will under no condition pass any item of payment without thoroughly checking it.[2]

This system may be too elaborate for the small agency, but there are many medium-sized and large organizations for which it is practical.

We find useful a 4-by-6-inch card for each employee which shows for 20 paydays (that is all the card will hold) the rate of pay at each pay period, deductions for federal income tax, retirement insurance, group hospital and medical insurance, chest pledge, war bonds, and miscellaneous items, and also the net amount paid. This information is drawn off each payday onto a slip which is given to the employee along with his pay check. The pay-roll deduction information slip or some similar form is required by law.

The fundamental principle remains that all payments should be fully documented. If an order has not been filled out for a given purchase—and this is often the case even in the best of organizations—the bill should be approved in initials by the person responsible for incurring the expense.

(*f*) *Getting Checks Signed.* The method of signing checks is a problem for many social agencies. It has already been suggested that all checks of $50 or over be signed by the executive and countersigned by the treasurer, and that checks of less than $50 be signed by the executive alone. Even this rather simple suggestion presents difficulties when the treasurer or the executive, or both, are out of the city. In some organizations one of the other elected officers may sign checks in the absence of the treasurer, and an assistant to the executive may sign checks when the latter is away. If both officers are absent, or if the executive has no assistant, it may be wise to provide that any two officers of the organization may sign checks. All authorized signatures must be placed on file with the bank, together with a certified copy of the board resolution which authorized the signatures. Furthermore, the staff auditor or bookkeeper should initial all vouchers before signature, to certify correctness of amount and validity of expenditure.

In order to minimize the problem of getting checks to an officer for his signature we try to confine the bulk of our check writing to

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 55.

two days a month—the fifteenth and the last day (pay days, quite naturally). If your agency has weekly pay days, that means twice as much work. Not many do, however.

The payment of all funds should be properly safeguarded. Ample assurance should be given that the expenditure is authorized and that by an authorized signature it is certified as being proper. Under no circumstances should the treasurer or executive sign a check in advance in expectation of absence on his part, because of the possible danger that it may come into the hands of an unauthorized person or that someone on the inside may find the temptation too great and fill out the check for personal purposes.

By the way, since checks have sometimes been raised in amount, it is wise to purchase a check protector so that you can stamp the amount of the payment into the fabric of the check.

CASH VS. ACCRUAL SYSTEM. No matter in what way the accounts of the social agency are classified, they may be kept by two main systems:

(*a*) *Cash System.* The first of these is the so-called cash system. Its fundamental principle is the recording of actual cash receipts and disbursements. For example, if a typewriter is bought in January but is not paid for until March, the price of the typewriter is listed as a March disbursement. This system is simple because all that is necessary to make up a report of expense is the record of daily disbursements from the petty cash account and the stubs in the check book (or the carbon copies if voucher checks are used). The cash system of bookkeeping is especially adaptable to small organizations which do not handle large sums of money and the accounts of which are kept by volunteer treasurers or by clerks untrained in bookkeeping.

The trouble with this system is that it does not give a clear picture of the actual financial condition of the organization at any given time. For example, a hospital patient might receive in January $100 worth of service, for which he ought to pay during that month. The value of that service should be part of the hospital's income for January. If the patient divides his payments into ten equal parts and pays one each month beginning March first, the receipt of this cash, under the cash system of bookkeeping, would not show when the service was rendered. On the other hand, the patient's food would have to be bought in January. Yet, if the hospital through lack of funds did not pay for it until March, the payment would appear as a March disbursement, although it would have no rela-

tionship to the actual work of the hospital during that month. The cash system thus may lag one or more months behind the actual experience of the organization, depending on how promptly the agency makes its collections and pays its bills. If, however, the same procedure is followed year after year no serious harm is done, especially if the cash receipts and disbursements are not used as a basis for large-scale planning. The cash system could be recommended, therefore, for smaller organizations and for those which conduct work of a more or less routine character.

(*b*) *Income or Accrual System.* The cash system is not adequate for large organizations and for those which must plan their work carefully from month to month with reference to the strategy of finance and service. For such organizations, the accrual or income method of bookkeeping is far more satisfactory. This system is based on the principle of recording income and expense when it is actually received or incurred. Thus in a hospital, under this system of bookkeeping, the payments due from patients, regardless of when the payment was actually made, would appear as income for the month in which the services were rendered. The obligations for payment for purchases and salaries would appear as expenditures of the month in which the expense was incurred. This plan gives an accurate picture of the actual financial operation of the organization, of the relationship between income from operations and the cost of those operations, and of the actual deficits incurred in operation and the reasons for those deficits.

The trouble with the accrual system is that it requires a more complex system of records and a more capable bookkeeper than does the cash system. It is by far the more satisfactory system, however, for an organization which really wishes to know its current financial situation and to plan in relation to that situation.

In spite of the arguments in favor of the accrual system of bookkeeping, community chests usually use the cash system. One reason is that the major expenditure of the chest is payment of cash to its member agencies for their cash requirements. Another is that many of the agencies are small, with volunteer bookkeepers or with staff personnel who are not specialists in accounting but who "double" in other office functions. These "amateurs" are not equal to the requirements of the accrual system. Their agencies do not need its refinements of information. Hence in the interest of uniformity all agencies in the chest use the lowest common denominator of accounting, the cash system.

The social agency which plans either a new bookkeeping system or a revision of the one in use should examine carefully the merits of these two methods. In consultation with competent accountants, it should determine upon the one which will most easily and quickly give the information desired.

(*c*) *Keeping Track of Payments Due on Pledges.* Part of the problem of bookkeeping for a social agency which has to collect funds from subscribers is to keep a record of the amounts due for the current year and from previous years, so that statements may be easily and correctly made out and credit for payment may be given promptly and accurately.

The system used by the Community Chest and Council of Houston and Harris County, Texas, may be suggestive. Subscribers receive statements from this organization when payments are due and each month thereafter until the payments are made. The system for recording pledges and payments and preparing the statements is one of the most economical in labor costs that we have ever seen. The staff auditor, Vance B. Lawrence, has prepared the following description of the procedure:

The pledges receivable ledgers are what is known as "snap-out" forms. The original, 6 by 7⅞ inches, is the ledger sheet. This is printed on twenty-four pound ledger paper. Attached on the back of this ledger sheet are six identical forms printed on twelve pound tissue. These are perforated at the top for easy removal. This form is made up with one-time carbon interleaved.

When it is time to bill the pledger, the tissue copy nearest the ledger sheet together with its sheet of carbon is pulled out. This statement shows all of the posting and other information that is on the ledger sheet. The name and address are so typed that the statement may be folded one time and inserted in a window envelope. Then, after sealing, the bill is ready for mailing. The name and address, directions about how payment is to be made, and first entry of amount of balance due are typed on this form.

Posting of payments and subsequent balances due is done on a posting machine. It accumulates the totals of the postings, deducts the amount paid from the previous balance, and enters the new balance on the ledger and on the statements attached to it. Hence they are always ready for mailing. If the supply of statement forms is exhausted before the account is paid in full, new sheets are set up in the same manner.

NEED FOR UNIFORM BOOKKEEPING SYSTEM. Not only accuracy but also uniformity of bookkeeping methods should be looked for in social agencies. On the contrary, there seem to be almost as many bookkeeping systems as there are social agencies. Usually, unless a

community chest has been working on the problem of uniform accounting methods for its members, no two agency accounting systems are the same. Therefore it is often impossible without great difficulty to secure comparable financial reports and get information regarding comparative costs of operation.

Some national agencies have required uniform financial reports of their local branches.

A few strides toward uniform financial and statistical reports have been taken in those communities in which local agencies have participated, usually under the leadership of the community chest or council, in the biennial studies of the volume and cost of social work. Until recently this material was assembled and published by the United States Children's Bureau; now it is handled by Community Chests and Councils, Inc.

Social agencies everywhere should work toward uniform accounting methods. When uniform systems of financial and statistical reporting are generally adopted it will be possible for agencies to compare their items of income and expense with those of other agencies which do similar work throughout the city, state, and nation. On the basis of such comparisons conclusions can be drawn which will be of great value in improving social service. This has been demonstrated already by the present limited participation of agencies in the volume and cost studies just mentioned.

COMPETENT PERSONNEL. Good accounting methods presuppose competent personnel. The employee who handles the accounts must be accurate, orderly, and reliable. Sometimes an agency is so fortunate as to secure a volunteer treasurer who will keep the books in excellent shape and present financial reports promptly and satisfactorily. Most social agencies, however, will probably find it desirable to employ either a full-time or part-time accountant with good training, competence, and sound experience.

Many organizations do not need full-time bookkeepers. Sometimes bookkeeping duties can be combined with statistical responsibilities. Indeed in a small agency, where the size of the budget or the extent of the program does not justify a full-time bookkeeper, any fairly intelligent clerical employee can be trained satisfactorily to keep simple but adequate accounts.

Full-time work for a bookkeeper can sometimes be found by centralizing all the agency's accounts in the accountant's office, even though the organization may be highly departmentalized. Again,

several organizations may unite in employing an accountant who will keep books for all of them. A good many community chests and councils of social agencies keep the accounts for a considerable number of their smaller member organizations in their central offices. In this way all necessary bookkeeping service is provided for the organizations. The central auditor or bookkeeper may also help in improving accounting methods as well as in advising on the preparation of budgets and office financial records.

BONDS AND THEFT INSURANCE. Although honesty is one of the self-evident qualities required of employees who handle funds, the social agency should have all such employees, as well as all officers who may sign checks, bonded for an amount sufficient to cover the largest amount of money each is likely to handle. The cost of a blanket bond with a reputable company is low. The bond assures ample protection for the organization if any employee or officer who handles cash or checks should ever fail in his trust. Individual bonds are not necessary. A "blanket" bond which covers the whole group of money-handling employees and check-signing officers is cheaper per person. The bond should be paid for by the agency.

In addition to bonds, the agency may take out burglary and theft insurance to protect it against possible loss of cash, especially at campaign time when considerable sums of money are turned in by volunteer workers. As an added safeguard at such times arrangements can be made with the police to have detectives guard those who handle cash until it is actually deposited in a secure place. This may be the agency's own safe (if it is reasonably burglarproof), a hotel safe, or the bank itself. Special arrangements can be made to have the bank kept open after official hours if campaign activities require late work by auditors.

All these precautions are worth while, even though no cash is ever stolen. They give the public assurance that the money it has paid is amply protected, and they prevent the loss of confidence which would be suffered if theft ever actually occurred.

FINANCIAL REPORTS. One of the primary purposes of an accounting system is the preparation, for those who direct or participate in the work of the organization, of financial reports which will enable them to plan and to carry out that work more effectively.

(*a*) *Daily Reports.* Financial reports may be made daily. For example, the executive of an organization which makes a public appeal for funds may receive figures as to the amount pledged and paid

each day during the year and as to the total amount pledged and paid to date. With that record, he can compare the current year with past years to see what progress is being made. He may check this financial report with the report of services rendered to see whether income is keeping pace with the service performed with that income. In a large organization he may also wish to see daily reports of expenses (if the accrual system of bookkeeping is used) so that he may control the outgo and plan ways of maintaining or increasing the income to meet that outgo.

We once thought daily reports useful in our own work. Later experience, however, makes us feel that they are unnecessary in most agencies. You may be able to impress your president or treasurer with your up-to-date knowledge if you can flash on him an up-to-the-day record of payments and disbursements and of probable assets and liabilities for the balance of the year. Personally we cannot see any other use for daily reports in this time of annual financial campaigns. Daily reports use a lot of expensive labor that might well be utilized otherwise. We find that monthly reports give us all the data we can use in financial administration and in collection procedure. Collect only the figures you can use!

(*b*) *Monthly and Yearly Reports.* Practically every social agency prepares monthly reports of income and expense for the board of directors, for possible newspaper publicity, and for the information and guidance of the executive and his staff. Community chests usually require of their member agencies monthly financial reports, on uniform blanks provided by the chest, as a justification for the monthly payment expected by each agency from the chest. The information contained in monthly reports is usually combined in an annual report which is given to the newspapers, published in the year book of the society, and used in other forms of publicity.

(*c*) *Publicity Values in Reports.* Financial reports are basic both to organization control and to sound public interpretation. The accounting system and reporting procedures should therefore be worked out, as has been suggested, by accountants in conference with public relations advisers. The latter can make suggestions as to the information which the public should have about the work of the organization and the ways in which those expenditures are classified.

For example, family service societies often have been criticized by unthinking people for spending too much for the salaries of their

workers and too little, as the average person thinks, for actual food, fuel, and clothing for their clients. These thoughtless people forget that the service of trained workers is far more important than the material relief they give; that the relief is merely part of the program of skilled rehabilitative treatment. A family society which divided its expenses into two main items—for example, "Salaries, $25,000" and "Relief, $25,000"—would neither interpret its work adequately nor gain public good will. The public attitude would be entirely different if this same organization divided its accounts as follows:

Material relief (food, fuel, clothing, and other material necessities for families and individuals cared for by the organization), $25,000.

Service (compensation of skilled social workers to help disturbed and distressed families and individuals work out their own problems), $15,000.

Facilities for service (office rent, salaries of typists to keep necessary records, bus fare and automobile expense for calls on clients, telephone expense for messages to and in behalf of clients), $5,000.

Supervision (salaries of executives to co-ordinate work of staff, to plan more effective work, and to train and supervise workers so that they will secure best possible results), $5,000.

This form of statement would secure better understanding of the agency's work than would otherwise be possible, would doubtless be read because people are interested in what money is spent for, and would prevent the criticism of "charitable overhead" which, unjustifiable as it is, proves one of the greatest handicaps to securing public support for social work in most cities.

(*d*) *Beware of Too Great Detail.* Only that information which is necessary for the understanding and interpretation of the work of the organization should be carried in monthly and annual financial reports. Although the books themselves may be exceedingly detailed, an organization should watch carefully lest its financial reports seem so intricate that no one will read them. On the other hand, the reports should not be so lacking in detail that some suspicious persons may think the organization is trying to cover up something. The report should be sufficiently specific to reveal the significant operations of the organization and to make control, suggestion, and constructive criticism possible. Still, the report should not present those petty details which really mean nothing at all.

(*e*) *Comparative Reports.* For administrative use by the executive, department heads, and the board, the monthly financial report should show, in parallel columns, not only the experience of the

past month but also the totals for each item for the year to date, the corresponding figures for the month and period in the preceding year, the budget for each item for the year to date, and the amount over or under the budget for each item. Then you have figures that mean something and really can exert some control!

(*f*) *Annual Reports.* It is manifest that for the sake of uniformity the monthly statement should correspond in classification with the annual statement of the organization. This makes for simplicity, economy, understanding, and easy comparison of figures.

Ordinarily, therefore, the annual financial report differs from the monthly report chiefly in showing the assets and liabilities of the organization. Although this statement may sometimes be omitted from the monthly report, it is vital for the annual report. It shows what financial progress the organization is making. It is especially important for the agency which uses the cash system of bookkeeping. An organization which at the close of the year showed a larger amount of unpaid bills or borrowed money than at the beginning of the year would be in an undesirable financial condition. On the other hand, one which could show that during the year it had reduced the amount of its borrowings, or had paid them all up and had also paid all its outstanding bills, would be in a much more favorable position. In the same way, the organization should show annually the status of its capital accounts. By this those who are interested may know whether the agency has increased its property holdings and investments.

It is also suggested that securities and properties be itemized as to name of donor and amount and as to name of security and amount. The location and value of each property may also be given. In addition, the value at which the stocks and properties are listed should be stated—for example, the par value, the market value, or the value at which the stock or property was received.

(*g*) *Unit Costs of Service.* Part of the monthly and annual report of the social agency, when it has a measurable form of service, might well be a statement of the cost per unit of that service.

Thus for a children's institution it is important to know the cost per child per day for the month and for the year, in comparison with periods in the past, to see the trend of cost. This figure is computed by recording the number of children in the institution each day during the month. If there are 24 children on the first of the month, that makes 24 days of care; if 25 on the second day, 25 days of care, and so on. These daily totals, added together, give the total number

of days of care for the month. Dividing this figure into the total cost of operating the institution for the month gives the cost per child per day.

Unit costs may be compared with those of other institutions, to discover whether the service is adequate or inadequate.

Similar figures should be prepared for hospitals and all other organizations in which definite figures are available as to the number of persons served and the quantity of the service that has been rendered.

Costs may be further analyzed—for example, in the case of a hospital—as to the cost for private patients and ward patients, or the cost per patient per day for fuel, food, and so forth. Cost accounting for large institutions is complicated because of the problem of allocating the overhead—such as heat, light, rent, supervision, and other expenses—to the various departments of the organization. Nevertheless a cost accounting system, properly installed and operated, is of great value in controlling the operations of any institution.

(*h*) *Auditing the Accounts.* The accounting should not be left entirely to regular employees of the agency or to a volunteer bookkeeper. The accounts should be audited at least annually by competent auditors. The advantages of having the auditing done during the year at their convenience are evident. It costs less that way than if you insist on having your audit made between January 1 and March 15, when the auditor is swamped with income tax work.

In smaller organizations, certified public accountants, with their higher charge for service, need not ordinarily be employed when satisfactory auditors not connected with the agency are available. Many large community chests and councils have their own auditor audit the accounts of the member agencies as well as keep the books of the chest and council. The books of the chest and council, however, should be audited by a certified public accountant. (You should not audit the books yourself.)

Large independent organizations should employ certified public accountants, of known reputation, who are competent to handle the more intricate problems of accounting procedure and whose prestige in the community is commensurate with the size of the organization.

An auditor should be competent, disinterested, thoroughgoing, and constructively critical. If he is widely experienced in accounting and office methods, he may be able to make valuable suggestions for economy and accuracy. Every organization should welcome such

suggestions and request that recommendations for improvement be made when the audit is submitted.

Regardless of whether the auditing is done at one period of the year or continuously (as in some larger organizations), an annual auditor's report—stated in intelligent terms and showing his certification that the accounts are in good shape—should be prepared for every organization. There is no reason why, if the books are well kept, the auditor should not be encouraged to make any favorable comments he wishes to. His certified report plus his commendation should then be given widespread publicity. Often his commendatory letter of transmittal is reproduced in the printed matter of the organization.

Sometimes accountants can be persuaded to give their services free or at actual labor cost. Even full cost of a competent audit is worth paying for, because of the public confidence it helps to build, because of the assurance it gives to the management that the accounts are in good shape, because of the value of auditorial check-up in preventing fraud, dishonesty, or inaccuracy, and because of the suggestions that it may make for improvement of methods.

(*i*) *Graphic Reports.* Although the figures of monthly and annual financial reports may in themselves make an interesting story of the work of the organization, their interpretive qualities may be further emphasized by putting them in graphic form. For example, bars which show the relationship between the various items of income and expense over a period of years, with the bars for each year shaded differently, will make a much clearer impression on the casual and non-technical observer than will the figures themselves. Charts may be used to show how low the agency's overhead cost is as compared with the service cost, or to exhibit other relationships which may be considered creditable. Curves which show the trends in the various details of income and expense over a period of years may be equally worth while. A cumulative curve may be used to show the progress of payments on subscriptions day by day, week by week, or month by month during the year. On the same graph, other curves drawn in different kinds of lines (solid, dotted, dot-and-dash, and so on) may show the comparative experience of the organization in collections for several years. Charts and graphs may be duplicated by any one of the various processes which have been mentioned. They may be sent to members of the board of directors, reproduced in printed bulletins of the organization, or given to the newspapers for publicity use.

This book cannot present a detailed treatise on charts, but two warnings to chart makers are necessary:

The first is to make the chart represent the full amount which is being considered. A contrary practice seems sometimes to be followed when the chart maker wishes to have an increase in income seem larger than is actually the case and therefore starts his chart part way up the scale of amounts. For example—if the income of an organization in 1943 was \$5,000; in 1944, \$6,000; in 1945, \$7,000; and in 1946, \$8,000—the "chartist" might start his chart at the \$4,000 mark instead of the zero mark and leave only \$1,000 showing on the \$5,000 bar for the year 1943. This \$1,000 segment would appear very small in comparison with the \$4,000 visible on the \$8,000 bar for the year 1946. If, however, all these bars were started at the zero mark, as they should be, the contrast would be much less. Charts and graphs can be used readily enough for misrepresentation without such palpably fallacious comparisons as this being introduced.

The other warning on this subject is to divide into comparable units of length all the data to be classified and expressed by bars or curves. It is difficult, for example, to compare a bar that represents \$10 with one that depicts \$10,000, because the disparity between the length of the two bars is too great for proper representation on an ordinary sheet of paper. It is better in such event to combine several \$10 items into one classification of \$100 or more. The unit of measurement should be carefully chosen so that the largest figure to be included in the chart can be drawn on the sheet of paper (preferably 8½ by 11 inches) and the smallest bar will not be too small to be represented in comparable terms.

Anyone interested in the preparation of graphic financial reports will find it well worth his trouble to read one or two of the standard books on chart making and then to experiment with different kinds of charts so that he can present the fundamental figures of his organization by various devices. Skilled graphic procedure will enable all those responsible for the conduct of the organization to see the relationship between the different elements of income and expense and to follow the trends of operation as expressed in terms of dollars. The use of graphic methods will quickly indicate dangers to be avoided and action to be taken. It will make possible a control of the operation of the whole organization which would be much more difficult if the figures used in financial reports were interpreted by words alone.

QUESTIONS

1. In some typical social agency you know, what values has the accounting system?

2. Does the accounting system include any interpretive considerations?

3. How are receipts recorded?

4. How is cash handled?

5. How are expenditures classified?

6. How is petty cash handled?

7. Are voucher checks used?

8. Are expenses departmentalized?

9. Who is authorized to sign checks?

10. Is the cash or the accrual system of bookkeeping used?

11. How are billing and payments on pledges handled?

12. Has this agency developed a bookkeeping system uniform with that of other agencies? If so, what are the elements of this uniformity?

13. What are the qualifications of the persons who handle the books?

14. What is done about bonding and theft insurance?

15. What sorts of financial reports are made?

16. What publicity values do they have?

17. How does the annual report differ from the monthly reports?

18. Are unit costs of service figured? If so, what?

19. Are the accounts audited? If so, how and by whom?

20. Are reports put in graphic shape?

21. How could these various elements in accounting procedure be improved?

Chapter XXII

Budget Making and Control

WHAT IS A BUDGET? Useful as accounting systems are for showing the sources and the disposal of funds of social agencies, it is vital also to plan the future of an organization in terms of the income which will be or must be made available, the expenditure which necessitates that income, and the service which will require that expenditure. Such a financial forecast is known as a budget. The budget has long been given official recognition by the United States government in its Budget Bureau and by many state and local governments in similar bureaus. Careful budgeting is an almost universal practice of business corporations. It is required of member organizations of community chests and is in general use among competent social agencies which are not members of chests. Yet some social agencies still proceed from hand to mouth financially. Others which have ostensible budgets seem to regard them not as useful guides to activity but as benevolent gestures of propitiation toward the apparently foolish requirements of community chest budget committees. Every social agency that has a sense of trusteeship, however, should establish an annual budget and endeavor to guide its work in accordance with that budget.

BUDGET THE SERVICE BEFORE THE INCOME. A budget in its simplest terms is merely a picture in dollars and cents of the service the social agency expects to render during some period in the future—usually a year. In order to make a budget intelligently, therefore, the agency must first have a plan of its service in the year ahead. This plan should be expressed in terms of the numbers of people to be served; the quality and quantity of service to be rendered; the equipment which must be repaired, replaced, or purchased to make that service possible; the expenditures which will be necessary for relief and other aid to clients, members, and patients; and the personnel which will be necessary to render that service.

The budget can be based in part on statistical trends of previous

years. These will show the annual fluctuations in service and the probable measure of the increase or decrease likely to prevail in the coming year. The community's rate of growth, as indicated by the censuses and estimates of the Federal Census Bureau may be a factor in planning. The changing nature of the population, such as the number of foreign-born, the age distribution, and other similar data, may also be of use. So too may be the evidence of economists and statisticians as to probable unemployment or prosperity and trends in building construction, utility connections, and other elements in the economic life of the community. Data of the Federal Bureau of Labor Statistics and other research and statistical agencies will help in computing rises (or falls) in the costs of commodities and service.

Changes in the division of work among social agencies in the community may increase or decrease the prospective volume of work of the individual agencies. An institution may plan to add a new wing, a new department, or a new building which will increase the number of users of its services. Some improved form of service may be projected, as in the case of a social settlement which plans to add an art class or music classes to meet the demands of its constituents. Recommendations of dietitians may be factors in estimating the amount which will be necessary for feeding inmates or patients. On the other hand, the agency may be in a position to use the services of a central purchasing bureau, or it may provide additional storage facilities which will allow the purchase of large quantities of commodities and thus reduce their cost. It may be desirable to employ additional or better qualified workers to carry on an undermanned piece of work in the year ahead.

Research bureaus, study groups of community councils of social agencies, and social surveys may produce data and recommendations as to extensions or reductions in areas or types of service by the agency.

These are among the factors which the social agency will have to take into consideration in planning the quantity and quality of its work and, consequently, in building up its budget. All this material should be worked into the agency's service program and hence into its financial program or budget. The budget is manifestly the financial reflection of the policies of the agency and of the relationship of that agency to other agencies as well as to the life of the community and of the nation. Planning of service must therefore precede the budgeting of income and expense.

COMPARISON WITH PREVIOUS FINANCIAL EXPERIENCE. In financial terms, the budget for the coming year is usually prepared on the basis of a comparison with the experience of past years. In that way the committees and boards which finally pass upon the budget may know the relation of previous income and outgo to proposed receipts and expenditures. The usual procedure is to list the items of income and expense down the left side of a sheet of paper. Then in parallel columns to the right are set the corresponding figures for each item for two or three previous years and for that part of the current year which has already elapsed, and also the estimate for the year ahead. There might well be a final column to show the amount of increase or decrease proposed for each item. If the items in the budget are built up, as they should be, from those in the monthly and annual statements of the organization, it will be easy to insert the experience of previous years. The budget is the financial projection into the future of the experience which the accounting system has already recorded.

Salaries should be given special attention. All those proposed should be listed on a sheet attached to the budget, with comparative figures for at least two previous years. The salary sheet should also give the minimum and maximum figure for each job and the proposed rate of increase, and should list perquisites in addition to salaries—meals, rooms, and so forth. If the agency has adopted a job classification system, as described in Chapters XVI and XVII, the classifications of the jobs and their occupational descriptions might well be made part of the record.

Further comment on salaries is given by our expert consultant on this chapter, John B. Dawson, Executive Director of the Community Fund of Philadelphia and Vicinity:

One of the toughest problems which an agency has to consider in the preparation of its budget is how to limit and control its program so that, within the range of available allocations, reasonable compensation can be given to those who are employed to carry on the work of the agency. For example, we have in Philadelphia in the Community Fund agencies a pay roll of approximately $6,600,000. For the next fiscal year the amount which we will have available for distribution will probably be increased by approximately $200,000. I have no doubt that salary and wage adjustments which might be considered reasonable in relation to present trends in the cost of living and current increases in business and industry, if applied to our pay roll of $6,600,000, would far exceed the increase which we will have available for the coming year. Under these circumstances an agency must decide whether it will restrict its program

and pay adequate compensation to those whom it employs, or whether it is going to sacrifice the welfare of its employees in the interests of expanding its program.

DEPARTMENTALIZED BUDGETS. In a simple organization one budget will cover the whole situation. If, however, the organization is elaborate and has various departments—such as a family society with a central office and various district offices, a YMCA with various branches of activity, or a hospital with a large variety of departments —a separate budget should be made for each department. The figures for the whole should be combined in one master budget.

PROJECT BUDGET. In order to present more clearly the significance of the proposed income and expense, some social agencies prepare their budgets in terms of projects. Typical project budgets might be: all the income and expense connected with a Boy Scout circus; factors in the publication of an annual report or the conduct of a survey; activities of major importance which can be made to stand out by themselves as specific pieces of work.

The project budget alone does not seem to meet satisfactorily the problem of adequate budgeting. A more effective procedure is to prepare a detailed budget for each department, with the income and expense carefully itemized, and to interpret this budget by project budgets which show the income and outgo for specific activities. The committee or board which is responsible for a budget usually wants to see the whole picture of the organization's financial relationships as well as the profit or loss on individual projects. It is to be suspected that project budgets are sometimes arranged rather to dazzle the committee which is to consider them than to give it an opportunity to gauge the propriety and feasibility of the expenditures proposed. The fundamental purpose of a budget, of course, should be to give an accurate and intelligible statement of the proposed income and expense of the organization and to show the relationship of those figures to past experience.

FIGURE FOR SAVINGS AS WELL AS FOR INCREASES. Each item of expense should be computed not only in terms of the growth of the organization but also in terms of economies which can be worked out, savings which can be made, and consolidations of activities which can be effected. In an honest budget it is just as necessary for the executive to figure reductions in some items of expense as to figure increases in others. It is much harder, though, to persuade the individual who is making a budget to relinquish a dollar which

he does not really need but thinks he may than it is to persuade him to add $25 to a proposed expenditure.

ESTIMATES OF INCOME. Income must be figured just as carefully as expense. Every possible increase in income aside from gifts (direct or from the community chest) should be studied. When an agency is supported by public funds, whether they are received as gifts or through taxation, it is part of the responsibility of the executive to spend only that money from these sources which is not available from other sources.

The agency should be as self-supporting as possible, consistent with the fulfillment of its social purpose. Payments by patients, by members of clubs, or by parents and guardians of dependent children should be carefully studied with a view to estimating possible increments to income. The possibility of improved collections on loans to clients should be considered. In the case of private agencies which receive appropriations from public authorities, endeavor should be made to get the authorities to appropriate the full cost of the services rendered to persons who are public charges. Investments should be analyzed with a view to ascertaining whether additional income might be secured from holdings just as safe but more lucrative than those held at present (difficult at this moment). All other sources of income should be analyzed to make certain that every penny which can legitimately be secured from other sources than contributions through taxes or gifts is planned for.

In a hospital, for example, as Frank E. Chapman suggests,[1] "estimating the income is not particularly difficult. The hospital knows or should know the approximate expectancy of the demand for its services. It knows the amount of those services which are available for its clientele. It knows the charge that is to be made for that service. It knows or should know the approximate loss from uncollected accounts. Given these constants of computation, the accumulation of totals is but a mathematical process." Similar businesslike methods might well be applied to other social agencies.

Unfortunately the executive often tends to play safe by figuring the income as low as possible and the expenses as high as possible so that he will have leeway in case the income decreases or the expenses go up. This is not correct procedure. The executive should put the income figure, apart from contributions (whether from the community chest or direct from contributors), as high as it is fair to

[1] *Hospital Organization and Operation*, p. 48. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1924.

set it, as a mark for his staff to shoot at in their endeavors. Conversely, as a matter of fairness to the public, expenses should be kept as low in estimate as is possible in the light of adequate quantity and quality in the service rendered.

PARTICIPATION IN BUDGETING. The budget usually is a composite. In putting it together the frequently discussed principle of participation should be followed. Usually each departmental executive, if the agency is so organized, is asked to submit a budget of his department's probable activity in finance and service for the year ahead. He discusses this budget with the executive of the agency and with the committee responsible for the management of his department, if there is such a committee. The departmental budgets are then turned over to the agency executive. He analyzes them with the help of any staff members who are especially competent in this respect. The combined budget is then discussed by the cabinet or some other group of department heads. After their recommendations have been incorporated, so far as the executive deems desirable, the budget is ready for consideration by the budget committee, if there is one (and there should be). Its recommendations are then passed on to the executive committee and to the board of directors, and from them to the budget committee of the community chest for its action (if the agency is a member of a chest). Budget preparation can thus be made a co-operative activity in which many persons may contribute their experience and judgment.

BUDGETING FOR INTANGIBLES. Although most social agencies figure their expenses in terms of the actual income and expense for the year, others consider it desirable to include various other elements, such as depreciation or the interest which would be paid on funds invested in building if those funds had been borrowed instead of contributed. One authority says that depreciation should be figured at two per cent on fireproof buildings and at ten per cent on the furnishings and mechanical equipment.

We do not agree with this procedure for a social agency which is supported by contributed funds. Contributors give their money for the agency's current expenses and not for use as a depreciation fund on a building that has been financed by a separate building fund campaign or by one or more large gifts or bequests. A depreciation fund would merely be used to replace that building or to build new buildings at some time in the future, and it would withdraw contributed funds from current use.

The budget of the organization should cover necessary repairs and

replacements. When new buildings are to be financed, the money should be raised by efforts separate from those in behalf of the current financing of the organization. A social agency is not a business institution. It does not distribute cash or stock dividends to those who have invested funds. Nor does it have to set up a reserve for obsolescence before such dividends can be paid. If the social agency is a member of a community chest, the repairs and replacements of the different agencies average up from year to year so that a separate fund for depreciation is usually not necessary. The budget of a social agency, as submitted to the public either directly or through the community chest, should not contain any "water" or imaginary features. The budget should be reduced to the bedrock of actual needs for current service.

There may be a few exceptions to this general rule, particularly if the agency is an institution with elaborate and expensive equipment which must eventually be replaced because of wear or the development of new and more efficient mechanisms, or if the agency is largely self-supporting, as in the case of a hospital or a YMCA or YWCA. In those cases a reserve for replacement of equipment might be established, to be financed out of excess earnings. In order to prevent the accumulation of large unused reserves, however, we believe it would be better practice, when the large-scale expenditures for repairs or replacements cannot be handled in the current budget, to borrow the necessary funds and to make the interest and amortization a budgetary charge.

John B. Dawson, commenting on the above, writes:

> Something is being done here and there in the way of combining capital fund requirements with operating requirements in the one appeal. Apart from the question of buildings, however, there is a twilight zone illustrated by major items of equipment, elevators, heating plants, and the like, which, when they go, go with a bang. They may be regarded as "necessary repairs and replacements," but they involve such substantial expenditures that there is a good deal to be said for having the provision for such items spread out over a period of years. In Philadelphia we have permitted our hospitals to establish reserves for deferred maintenance during the past two or three years, chiefly because they were unable to make current repairs and replacements during the war period. We also recognized that the leeway which developed during these years was due in part to the fact that they could not maintain their staff organizations at normal levels. Over a three-year period, thirteen hospitals of the community fund established such reserves in an amount approximating $715,000.

CONTINUOUS BUDGETING. Budget making is not a task to be confined to the period just before the budget is to be submitted. It is a continuing job. The secretary of a social agency who has been very successful in budgeting reports:

> I keep a year-round folder on all matters pertaining to budget needs. This includes not only certain costs which will be repeated in other years but may not have been incorporated in the current budget form, but also notations on pieces of work which we were unable to do because of lack of funds, and in some instances indication of the value of such work and what might be the anticipated cost. At the time of making out the budget, the contents of this folder are carefully studied. This material, together with figures over previous years, is effective in suggesting what might be the legitimate budget request, including old work, new work, and extension of service.

INTERPRETING THE BUDGET. The budget may be interpreted through additional data for consideration by the board of directors of the organization or by the budget committee of the community chest. As an experienced secretary of a family society has stated:

> The requests made by the executive might be backed up in various ways. For example, if the salaries are low, salaries of similar organizations in other cities and data on the subject collected by our national agency might be presented. If increased funds are needed for the purchase of commodities, official statistics may be quoted as to changing prices. If costs are higher, the reason why should be shown. If special community conditions exist which demand particular kinds of service, the surveys on special studies which have been made should be quoted to show the facts.

A good method of handling such explanations is to attach to the budget one or more pages of description or "justification" which refer line by line to the budget and explain exactly why each proposal is made. Charts may be made to show graphically such relations as comparative commodity prices, salaries compared with those of other agencies, trends of service over a series of years, variations in relief expenditure month by month, and so on. Testimony as to the importance of proposed activities may be secured from the community council of social agencies or from competent individuals. For example, the judge of a juvenile court could testify to the importance of a proposed extension of a boys' club.

MAKING THE BUDGET A PART OF THE MINUTES. When the budget is finally approved by the board, it should be signed by the officers of the organization responsible for it and then incorporated in the minutes.

SPECIAL CONSIDERATIONS FOR BUDGETS OF CHEST AGENCIES. In the presentation of social agency budgets to the budget committees of community chests, the principles which have already been discussed should be followed in the main. Yet some special considerations may enter. The social agency should not pad its budget in the thought that the budget committee will make general cuts in all budgets and that out of the compromise the agency will get at least some of what it expected. Chest committees generally detect such subterfuges and are more likely to cut the budget of an agency which tries to "put something over" than that of an organization which makes the committee a partner in all the planning. The agency should explain to the budget committee of the community chest the social implications of each proposal. The agency should make its proposals conservatively and leave to the budget committee the decision as to whether or not it wants to accept responsibility for the social consequences of failing to make the proposed allocation.

It is a good plan for the agency's representative to discuss its budget with the executive or budget secretary of the community chest in advance of the meeting. He may have in mind special considerations which may either modify the budget or enable the agency to meet, by suitable explanation, objections that are likely to be made.

The community chest should send to the agency, in advance of the meeting, copies of the questions regarding the budget which it sends to its own budget committee.

Sometimes the chest executive, in advance of the budget conference, makes recommendations to the budget committee regarding the agency's budget. Ordinarily, though, he lets the facts speak for themselves and leaves to the agency the support of any proposition it wishes to make.

The agency's budget should always be presented to the chest budget committee by at least two persons—preferably the executive and one or more members of the board. The executive alone is not the proper person to present it, because of his peculiar interest. Also, if he fails to secure what he wants, he may blame the community chest for its lack of sympathy rather than put the blame on his own inadequacy, where it may belong. It is a good thing for him to have some witnesses from his agency observe his performance. Moreover, the board of the agency presumably has assumed responsibility for the budget. Board members should therefore officially stand as budget sponsors. On the other hand, large numbers of important cit-

izens are usually not necessary to impress the budget committee. What the committee wants is facts intelligently presented. Yet it also wants the agency sufficiently represented to make sure that the committee's own point of view is sympathetically presented to the agency's board.

The discussion of the budget should not be a "hearing" in which the chest's budget committee makes a more or less arbitrary decision, but, rather, a conference in which mutual agreement is reached as to which agency budgets are justified in view of the total need to be met by chest agencies and of the funds likely to be available. The social agency which interprets its needs clearly, conservatively, accurately, and graphically is likely to secure the fullest possible appropriation from the funds available for distribution by the budget committee of the community chest.

PRESENTATION OF THE BUDGET TO THE PUBLIC. If the budget does not go to the budget committee of a community chest, it should at least be presented to the public through adequate newspaper publicity or through publication in the agency's bulletin. This presentation should be as complete as the space available allows. It should be accompanied by a specific statement of the reasons for the adoption of the budget. Publicity may be of great value in interpreting the service and plans of the agency. Frankness and fullness of presentation may be important factors in securing the funds which the budget shows are necessary.

CHECKING THE BUDGET AGAINST PERFORMANCE. The budget, even when approved and publicized, is only a chart on which is drawn the prospective progress of the organization, in terms of service as expressed by dollars, toward the goal of a satisfactory year's activity. Progress in terms of both income and expense must be carefully checked against the budget. Expenses must be so handled that they will not run above their appropriations, and income must be watched and stimulated so that it will come up to expectations. Some basis for the measurement of progress must be set up, so that the board, the executive, and the staff can know whether the agency is progressing according to schedule.

(*a*) *Effective Comparisons.* A satisfactory way to measure the financial status of the agency in relation to its budget is to compare each month's financial report with the budgeted income and expense. This can be done by listing the items of income and expense down the left side of a sheet of paper, and then listing to the right in vertical columns the figures for the total budget for the year, the

pro rata budget for that part of the year which has elapsed (for example, one-third of the budget for the first four months of the year), the actual income and expense for that period, the amounts by which income and expense exceed or are under the budgeted allowance for the period, the budgetary allowance on a pro rata basis for one month, the actual income and expense for the past month, and the amount by which the month's actual experience is greater or less than the average monthly expectation. This tabulation will show clearly the general tendency of income and expense for that part of the year which has elapsed, will point out any difficulties due to operation during the last month, and will suggest action when more attention must be given to increasing income or when expenditures must be watched in order to keep them within the appropriation. A final and useful column may show the balance still unexpended or the amount still to be received in income for each item. A statement of this kind, prepared each month, will give the organization definite means of controlling its operations. The comparative figures should be interpreted, of course, in relation to the variations in income and expense which come with the seasons of the year. Do not bind the agency with a budget, but make the budget serve the agency!

According to various experienced administrators, several useful variations of this general procedure are possible:

One executive of a social settlement figured the *average* monthly expense based on three years' expenditures and then made monthly subtractions from the estimated allowances in the budget. This showed how much remained and gave a basis of comparison with average monthly expenses free from the variations of one year.

The secretary of a community council of social agencies kept a control book of income and expense and tried to distribute the expenditures in relation to the income so that the payment of certain dues and other controllable items was arranged for a time when the financial condition of the agency seemed to warrant those expenditures.

As the secretary of a family agency explained its procedure, "At the beginning of each month each district office is budgeted for relief for the month. The bookkeeper prepares a weekly report showing the amount allowed for relief and the amount expended. This gives us a weekly control which has been very helpful in facing the problem of over-expenditure before it has reached a large figure."

The secretary of a YMCA had all his department heads check up

on budgeted expenditures for the month and for the year to date every ten days, and on budgeted income twice a month, so that any dangerous tendencies would be brought to light before they became serious.

The secretary of a national organization explained its method as follows: "Since certain expenses are seasonal, because printing is apt to vary greatly from month to month, a monthly budget is prepared about a week before the beginning of each month. This is checked over with reference to the budget for the entire year to make sure that the expenditures are being kept within the total budget adopted and within the income which is being received from month to month for the support of the organization."

(*b*) *Information for Groups Responsible.* Not to the executive alone are budgetary statements useful. They should be submitted to the board of directors and to the executive committee of the organization as evidence of the progress of the work in accordance with the plan that has been made. They may serve as a basis for discussions of agency policies and of measures to meet emergency situations which develop and may require changes in the plan of finance or of service.

More than this, monthly statements should be distributed to staff members responsible for keeping expenditures within the budget and should be discussed with them. Department heads of an organization who are faced with budgetary statements of this character will feel a responsibility for performance. Case workers who can see the relationship of their relief authorizations for clients to the agency's relief bill will be more careful in their expenditures. Dietitians in a children's institution who know whether their own departmental activities are over or under the budget can handle their work with a responsibility which otherwise would be impossible. In the analysis the budget manifestly should be departmentalized. Every person responsible for expenditures should be given the budget information correlated with the monthly financial reports.

(*c*) *A Means of Avoiding Difficulty.* The budgetary statement should not be merely a basis for post-mortem discussion of difficulties. The analysis of income and expense should be a means for planning expenditures in advance so that the allowance for the various items in the budget will not be exceeded and also for bolstering up finance through further development of the membership, the solicitation of contributions, or additional allocations from the chest budget committee, before the falling off in income becomes so se-

vere that a deficit is incurred. Through the budgetary statement, properly handled, the whole financial program of the organization can be controlled, as well as the activities of the person responsible for expenditures.

(*d*) *Making Comparisons Vivid.* Budgetary statements can be prepared in a variety of ways which will aid in their effectiveness. They can be expressed in percentages of the total budget or of the pro rata appropriation of income and expense for the year to date. If the annual allowance for a day nursery is $4,800 and the agency in three months has spent $2,400 of this amount, it can be shown that the organization has spent either 50 per cent of its annual appropriation or 200 per cent of its three-month pro rata allowance of $1,200; or, in percentage of over-expenditure for the pro rata allowance for this period, it would have overspent its allowance 100 per cent.

These relationships can also be expressed by charts, with bars which correspond to the percentage expenditure for each item. Curves can also be used to show the cumulative totals of income and expense from month to month in comparison with those which show the normal income and expense; or they can show the actual relationship of budget and performance month by month either in dollars or in percentages. Graphic presentation will help forcefully in calling attention to the danger points in financial experience.

ACTION ON BUDGETARY INFORMATION. The tendency revealed by the monthly budgetary statements should be translated into prompt action in the social agency. It is manifestly impossible for any organization to estimate with absolute accuracy its income and expense in detail for twelve, fifteen, or eighteen months ahead. Experience seldom checks up with anticipation. On the other hand, as noted at the beginning of this chapter, the budget is, in terms of dollars, a picture of the program of the agency's service. The budget represents an appropriation by the governing board (and often by the community chest) for the activities of the agency, and it should be adhered to unless conditions make a change necessary. It should be changed only if the board of directors (and the chest board) approves that change.

(*a*) *Transfers within the Budget.* The executive should be authorized by his board to make small transfers of expenditures from one item to another if such changes do not affect the program of the agency but are merely the result of changed conditions that are beyond control and if they do not entail an increased total expenditure

for the year or commit the agency to greater expenditure for years to come. For example, if $100 was appropriated for roofing repairs and the actual work was found to cost $125 because of conditions which were not apparent until the shingles had been wrenched off, it would be proper for the executive to transfer to this expenditure money which had been saved on some other activity. On the other hand, if the executive had an appropriation of $3,000 for an employee's salary for one year, was unable to find the right person, and employed two people for the last six months at the rate of $3,000 each per year (paying each only $1,500 for this six months so that the total expenditure would be $3,000), the procedure could not be countenanced; the number of persons employed for this salary would not be in accordance with the agency's plan. Moreover, such action would in a sense commit the agency to the employment of two persons at an annual salary of $3,000 each ($6,000 per year in all) for the next year.

(*b*) *Approval by Board and Chest.* The executive should take to his board for approval every situation which calls for a transfer of funds much larger in amount than the agency's total appropriation for the item in question or for an activity that would commit the agency to an increased expenditure for the following year. If the agency is part of a community chest, it should also secure the consent of the budget committee of the chest; for in a sense the organization has a contract to carry on its work in accordance with its budget, in return for the funds supplied through the chest.

(*c*) *Periodical Revision of the Budget.* The above does not mean that the budget is to be held inviolate. After all, it is merely a plan and an estimate which should be changed when conditions are found to differ from those anticipated. It is well to revise the budget in detail each month to accord with the actual experience of the organization. Revision, however, should follow careful analysis and be the result of sound planning. The agency should do its financial planning for at least a year in advance, and it should make changes in its plan only when they are shown to be essential in the light of experience.

(*d*) *When Income Falls.* A serious situation develops when income falls incurably below expectation and necessary expenses show no drop. The agency must then face the problem of whether it will curtail its service either in quantity or quality, do without proposed additions to equipment or activity, or incur a deficit in the hope that

the shortage can be evened up in later years. No definite rule can be followed.

Our friendly commentator, John B. Dawson of the Community Fund of Philadelphia, correctly adds:

> There is the possibility that the agency would reopen the consideration of the budget with the budget committee of the community chest. The chest is a partner in this matter of agency budgeting and would want to take counsel with the agency on any problems which might arise during the year. Moreover, if an agency surplus reverts to the community chest, there is an added obligation resting on the chest to consider the plight of the agency when things go into reverse.
>
> Incidentally, this suggests the further thought that the chest has a stake not only in the financial end result of agency policy but also in the considerations which determine policy. For example, one agency in this area recently decided to increase the rate of payment to its foster mothers for the care of children, without saying anything to either of the chests from which it received support. Apart altogether from the question of whether this would call for more money from the supporting agencies, we felt that the considerations leading to this decision ought to have been reviewed with us before such action was taken, more especially since we were financing two or three other agencies doing similar work and having similar problems. In another instance, two agencies, one within the Community Fund territory and the other outside it, decided to change the dividing line between the territory covered by each and did so in a way which did not conform with the fund-raising territory and which affected the budget of each. In order to act intelligently a budget committee must be aware of the influences and necessities which shape the service program.

If income is irretrievably lost, the agency should ordinarily refrain first of all from engaging in new activities. It would probably postpone the addition of a new department for work already budgeted, the employment of additional workers, raises in pay, replacement of old equipment, or painting and repairs not absolutely necessary. The agency would cut down on appropriations for conference and travel expense (perhaps in the expectation that the workers themselves would pay a larger part of these expenses than would normally be the case). Last of all, the agency would cut down on the adequacy of service or the number of people served.

Actual reduction in service should be announced to the public in advance of actual action, thus giving people a chance to supply enough extra funds to make the cut unnecessary. If the funds were not then forthcoming, the public would know why the agency had to cut down its service.

This point is especially important when the agency is a member of a community chest. Any necessary limitation in service should be discussed with the budget committee of the chest. The chest should in turn be prepared to present the situation to the public and to accept the responsibility if curtailment of service brings complaints.

Indeed, proposed reduction in service should be discussed with the appropriate group in the community council of social agencies. What occurs in one agency may affect many in the closely interwoven fabric of modern social work. Common discussion may lead to inter-agency adjustments in programs and budgets which will meet the community problem presented by the financially disturbed agency.

As John B. Dawson again suggests:

> The individual agency budget is important in relation to the community needs and requirements taken as a whole. Sometimes an agency is apt to overlook the fact that, when we assemble all the individual agency budgets and proceed to analyse them and examine the supporting data, we begin to get a picture of the problems, needs, and resources of the community which is of significance both in terms of social welfare planning and for the purpose of determining campaign objectives.
>
> Experience in the area of budgeting has great educational value for board members. Some board members respond to this experience more readily than others, but it has great possibilities for the development of lay participation. For that matter, budgeting in its processes and in its end results can prove of educational value to the community as a whole.

The above discussion should make clear the importance of comparing financial statements in detail with budgets from month to month and of checking them carefully with each month's budgetary allocation and with the year's budgetary allowance for the total period which has elapsed. This procedure is a means of guiding the social agency's ship past the shoals of inadequate finance, out of the storms of increased demands for service, and through the tides of shifting events and of fitful demands of local needs which during the year may necessitate great changes in proposed expenditures. The skipper will modify his course continually in accordance with these chartings of actual financial experience. Thus may he reach safely the goal of the year's economical, effective, and satisfactory service without accumulating a large surplus of funds through unnecessary parsimony in expenditure or unduly cautious underestimation of income. Thus also may he avoid a deficit as a liability on future endeavors. The executive who blandly says he knows nothing about the financial data of his organization is as incompetent as the pilot

of a ship would be if he said he did not know how to tell the position of his ship on the face of the ocean in terms of latitude and longitude. Budgetary control is essential to organization control.

QUESTIONS

1. What definitions can you give for the term budget?

2. In some typical social agency you know, what is the relation of service, actual and projected, to the budget?

3. How is the financial budget related to previous financial experience?

4. Does this agency use departmental budgets? If so, how?

5. Does it use project budgets? If so, how?

6. Does it figure decreases as well as increases in various budget items?

7. How do staff and board members share in budgeting?

8. Are depreciation and hypothetical interest figured in the budget?

9. How is the budget interpreted?

10. If the agency is a member of a community chest, how is the budget presented to the chest for consideration?

11. How is the budget put before the public?

12. How is it checked against performance?

13. What use is made of this information?

14. How if at all are comparisons made graphic?

15. What is the policy concerning transfers of items of expense within the budget?

16. What is done when the expense budget must be revised upward?

17. What is done when income falls short of expectations?

18. How might the practice of the agency in any of these respects be improved?

Chapter XXIII

Statistics in Administration

VALUES OF STATISTICS. Financial accounting alone is not a sufficient recording of the activities of a social agency. Equally important for effective administration is service accounting derived from statistical records just as accurate and often quite as detailed as the financial records. Accurate statistical records, analytical of the various phases of the agency's program, regularly compiled, and comparing present performance with past experience of the agency, are essential to sound administration.

(*a*) *Interpretation of Agency Services.* Statistics, suitably interpreted, are one of the most important materials for accounting to contributors, taxpayers, and the community for the funds which have been invested in the agency's service. They form a measure of the extent and progress of service in a form easily understood (though sometimes perhaps they make too powerful an impression on the uncritical mind). They may be one of the chief materials by which the board determines the service program of the agency, and they are a vital factor in the adoption of budgets.

Every agency might well have a committee on statistics, the chairman of which at least should be a member of the board. Statistical reports, which give data for the past month, the year to date, and comparable periods of recent years, should be presented at each board meeting and discussed to bring out their full implications for the agency's program.

(*b*) *Guide to Operation.* For the administrator, statistical data, both current and comparative, are essential in planning the agency's service program as it fluctuates from month to month and year to year, in determining need for professional and non-professional personnel, and in distributing the responsibility for services among the personnel. For example, simple statistics of the increasing case load of a family service agency committed to an average load of 35 cases per worker would indicate when the time had come to add another

case worker. Similarly, reports on the number of cases carried per worker would help in the distribution of the load among the workers.

Moreover, figures of agency service enable the administrator to study the strengths and weaknesses of his service program and to detect gaps in service. For instance, if the record of registrations of and attendance in a group work agency showed small attendance and low registration in an activity which presumably should be popular, investigation might be made as to the reason for the shortcoming. The inquiry might result either in abandonment of the activity as not being actually needed or in reassignment of personnel to supply stronger leadership to meet the actual but unmet demand. On the other hand, another activity might show exceedingly high registration and attendance so great that the one professional staff member assigned could not give adequate service. In such a case additional personnel might be assigned; or the too-large group might be split into smaller, more cohesive groups for service at non-conflicting times or places.

Statistical records also aid in controlling the costs of the organization. Comparative costs of food per patient per day in a number of hospitals might be a guide either to more adequate diets for one hospital or to more economical purchasing by another. We mentioned unit costs in Chapter XXI; these are a combination of accounting and statistics!

(c) A Concern of the Professional Staff. Obviously, statistics are of concern to the professional staff. To a certain extent they measure the efficiency of the staff members and help to determine the assignment of professional responsibility. They are an aid to effective supervision and provide a stimulus to efficient performance. They are a tool for staff participation in management. The staff should advise on the establishment of the statistical classifications and procedures. It should provide the basic statistical records of its own services for compilation into the agency's statistical reports. Through group discussion of these reports, the staff should help to guide the agency's service and administrative policies.

(d) Helpful to Human Service. Statistics also are vital to the people actually or potentially served by the agency. Such data help to measure the adequacy of the agency's service, both in quantity and in quality. Related to over-all figures of community life and social problems, the agency's records of service help to determine the strategy of extension into areas of need or of withdrawal from others.

For example, Boy Scout organizations use, as a rough guide to their coverage, the number of boys of Scout and Cub age in the community as compared with the numbers of boys registered as Scouts and Cubs, and their extension services are planned accordingly.

(e) *Vital to Community Planning.* Statistics of all agency services in a community, collated by fields of service through the research bureau of a community council of social agencies and thrown against a background of community data, are vital to the planning activities of the council's functional committees and divisions and aid in allocating responsibility for service among the agencies in the community.

(f) *Essential to Budget Presentation.* Statistics of agency services, often combined with financial data to show unit costs of service, related to statistics on community needs, and showing trends from month to month and year to year, are helpful in the effective presentation of agency budgets before community chest budget committees. Similarly useful are cost-of-living data secured from national sources such as the Federal Bureau of Labor Statistics and related to the problems of the agency. For example, figures on the increasing cost of living, corrected for the community concerned, may be the determining argument for an increase in the cost of boarding home care for a child-placing agency. At the same time, records of increasing case loads for several years, projected into the year ahead, may show the necessity of providing for a greater number of children in boarding homes. Census data, actual and estimated, showing an increase in the community population may also help to secure a desired increase in chest allocation.

(g) *An Aid to Money Raising.* The community chest itself uses statistics in its analysis of givers by number and by size of gift in proportion to the population of the community and as compared with similar data on other communities compiled by the national organization, Community Chests and Councils, Inc. Thus, if your community chest shows only a fifth of its population giving, whereas comparable communities average one-fourth to one-third, more widespread and effective interpretation and a more thorough campaign organization may be indicated.

Throughout the whole length and breadth of social work, then, the compilation and reporting of statistical data is manifestly a major administrative concern of social agencies.

STAFF PARTICIPATION REQUIRED. Development of statistical procedures and their operation must be shared by the administrator with

his staff. Even from the standpoint of securing accurate, consistent, and practical data, workers must be brought into discussions on the development and use of such material. Statistical classifications must have the same meaning for all professional and other staff members concerned with the preparation and use of statistics, if each member is to carry through satisfactorily his individual responsibility as to statistical procedures.

It would be unrealistic on the part of the administrator to expect that all his staff workers will follow through consistently in the subsequent preparation of statistical data, if the data when compiled are not used and if the data are not ultimately shared with the staff as a means for guiding policy and for stimulating professional activity. It appears that a common complaint among staff members is, "What do they want with these figures and what do they do with them?" It is not a valid answer to say that the administrator makes use of these figures in some way known only to himself. The staff should be kept fully aware of the uses to which the statistical data are put. The whole personnel, in so far as it is competent, should share in planning the statistical program and in discussing its implications for the agency.

STAFF MUST PRODUCE BASIC MATERIAL. The professional staff must realize that it has a vital part in the statistical program. Usually the professional staff members are responsible for providing the basic data in respect to cases or groups which they handle. Preparation of statistical material should be part of the professional responsibility of each worker. Reports should be prompt, accurate, and in accordance with the classifications of data which have been established.

Records and statistics should be seen as part of the job of the case worker or the group worker and as fundamental to the case work and group work processes. A tendency on the part of some workers to feel that record keeping is something far removed and apart from their jobs has often been observed. Actually, however, it is an integral part of their professional responsibility.

STANDARD STATISTICAL PRACTICE PART OF THE OFFICE MANUAL. The statistical procedure of the agency, as produced through group discussion by the members of the staff, should be made part of the standard practice instructions and included in the office manual.

USE COMPETENT NATIONAL ADVICE AND DATA. The administrator and statistician should keep in touch with and make use of listings of and commentaries on continuing series of statistical data which are currently available and have value for the administrator. Some of

this material may come from the national organization of which the local agency is a part—as, for example, from the Family Service Association of America, the Child Welfare League of America, and the National Boy Scout and Girl Scout organizations. Another resource is the material on volume of service and of expenditure collected biennially in many fields—until recently compiled by the Federal Children's Bureau and now by Community Chests and Councils, Inc. From the Children's Bureau also material on juvenile delinquency may be secured. The Federal Security Agency produces important data on trends in public welfare, for both categorical and general assistance. Data on the cost of living may be obtained from the Federal Bureau of Labor Statistics.

RESOURCES FOR DEVELOPING AND MAINTAINING PLAN. The administrator need not develop the statistical plan of his agency out of thin air, through staff conference, or out of books, magazine articles, or pamphlets. Usually there are many resources that may be utilized in developing an adequate statistical system. Among these would be the research bureau of the local community council of social agencies, the national organizations of which the local agency is a part or is a member, the United States Children's Bureau, the Federal Security Agency, and others.

AGENCY COMMITTEE ON STATISTICS. Considerable help can also be gained through a competent committee on statistics. As has already been suggested, every agency might well consider organizing such a committee. The committee need not be made up entirely of board members but may include people from the community who are familiar with research and statistics—such as qualified members of the faculties of local colleges or universities, research executives of local utilities, the statistician of the chamber of commerce, and other statistically minded citizens. The members of this committee from their statistical knowledge will contribute to the successful practice of sound procedures within the agency. Moreover, through the statistics which the outside committee members help to produce, they will learn more of the work of the agency than they otherwise would and will become interpreters of its services. A committee on statistics is another one of the numerous means which the agency should use to weave the community into its program.

ADMINISTRATOR'S RESPONSIBILITY. Although the administrator need not be a statistical expert, he should by all means have a knowledge of at least the elementary principles of statistics. That means some-

thing more than having a little arithmetic. He should keep in touch with current developments in the statistical field through reading important books and other published material on the subject. Similarly he should expect the person who handles the statistics for his agency to keep up with developments and apply these principles in his work.

WHO SHALL COMPILE AGENCY STATISTICS? One person in the agency should be responsible for assembling and compiling the statistical data. In large agencies a specially trained and competent full-time statistician or director of research will be necessary. Smaller agencies do not need full-time statistical service. In these the task should be assigned to someone who not only can be trained in simple statistical procedures but also realizes the value of statistics in the work of the agency. This person might be the registrar, the intake supervisor, the executive's secretary, or in some cases a social-minded bookkeeper or auditor.

MATERIAL FOR STATISTICS. The material for statistics is manifold. It may include the number of clients or patients cared for during the month, together with various subdivisions as to age, race, religion, the kind of treatment given, and so on almost without end.

In an agency that does group work, statistics may further include attendance as well as registration. In group work statistics, care should be taken to secure an unduplicated count of the number of persons included in the various clubs, classes, and other groups.

Case work statistics may include the number of families and individuals served; the number of visits made by members of the staff or the number of other services performed by them; the causes of treatment or the contributory factors in the problems of the persons served by the agency; and the number of clients from each agency which refers cases to the organization.

In addition to the count and analysis of services rendered, the organization may also conduct statistical surveys to indicate situations which require attention—as, for example, the number of children within the agency's community, analyzed by age, sex, race, nationality, religion, and other factors which may be significant. Almost anything in the agency's area of service which can be counted or measured may be the subject of statistics.

The dual test which should be applied is (1) whether the figures collected make any real difference in the agency's work or in the at-

titude of the public or of clients toward the agency and its problems; and (2) whether the result from collecting, compiling, and publishing such statistics is commensurate with their cost in time, effort, and money.

MECHANISM FOR STATISTICS. Behind the presentation of statistics lies the mechanism for keeping statistical records. Financial statistics, such as the cost per patient per day in a hospital, mean the combination of financial and social bookkeeping. Volume statistics, which show the growth of the organization, the load of work for each worker, and other pertinent facts, are dependent on systematic keeping of records which permit the counting of particular items or acts. Each system of records should be adapted to the agency which plans to use it.

A large agency may have a statistical card for each person served by the agency. On the card will be recorded pertinent facts. From it and its mates significant summaries will be compiled. In addition, each worker may compile a report of services rendered and actions taken. Few agencies are large enough to use punch-card systems which automatically classify and tabulate all record data. These have great fascination, though!

A small social agency which does not require complicated statistical records can use for its statistical analysis a sheet much like the one it uses for its bookkeeping. Vertical columns for various classifications of activities would be set up across the top of the page. The days of the month would be listed down the side, with a line for each day running across the page. On a sheet like this a children's institution might analyze each day the total number of girls, the total number of boys, the number admitted, the number released, the number sick, and any other data which it found important. Each figure would be posted under the appropriate column heading. At the end of the month the only action necessary to compile the statistical report would be to add the various columns. The desired figures would thus be immediately available. This statistical procedure would be comparatively easy. It would require no elaborate form, and the data would be ready when needed. Almost any social agency can follow this general plan. Keeping records day by day reduces them to manageable terms. Simplicity in the collection of data is as important as simplicity in recording it, and the system should be thoroughly planned in advance.

INTERPRETATION OF STATISTICS. Statistics are only half completed when they have been collected for the specified period and prepared

in a carefully typed tabulation. They must also be interpreted. Explanation may take various forms:

(*a*) *Comparisons.* Statistics for the same month in several years may be compared, column by column, in a tabulation which will reveal important trends of increase or decrease. In the same columnar manner, that part of the year which has elapsed since the beginning of the current year may be compared with identical periods of previous years. Experiences of several entire years may be reduced to a tabular statement which will be helpful in showing trends. Various factors within the organization activities (for example, in a hospital, the number of full-pay patients, part-pay patients, and free patients) may be compared in the same manner.

Statistical statements of present performance may be compared with past experience just as profitably as those of current income and expense may be compared with the agency's past experience and with its budget. Relationships shown by comparative statistical tables may be expressed in percentages of change or in ratios of one year's experience to another's.

(*b*) *Graphics.* Statistical relationships may be presented graphically by bar charts which will show, in terms either of numbers or percentage of cases, the ratio of one period to another. Curves may be used equally well—either cumulative curves which reveal the total number of cases handled from month to month, with lines of different substance for each year; or curves of absolute total frequencies which indicate merely the fluctuations from month to month or year to year.

Graphic comparisons are useful in revealing relationships or trends which otherwise might not be suspected. They are of especial value in interpreting complicated tabulations to the lay person. By their use the past may be understood and the future largely predicted. Procedure thus guided may correspond more exactly to the actual needs for service by the agency than would be possible without graphic aid.

In the last few years striking interpretations of statistical data have been made through the use of pictographs, popularized by the ingenious pioneer work of the late Otto Neurath, originally of Vienna and latterly of New York.[1] Stylized figures to represent various kinds of data are repeated as units in simulated bar charts. Each unit figure represents a specified number of items. For example, one

[1] See Waldemar Kaempffert, "Appreciation of an Elephant," in *Survey Graphic,* February, 1946.

silhouetted baby might stand for 1,000 babies in a series of bars which showed the number of births in a city, year by year, for several years. Pictographs, now widely used in statistical comparisons, deserve still more extensive use by social agencies.

(c) Written Explanations. Important as charts, graphs, and pictographs are for the interpretation of statistics, the record of service needs further interpretation. The resourceful executive will add to his tabulations and charts a written explanation of the significance of various factors which may not otherwise be completely revealed.

For instance, the number of pay patients in a hospital might be greatly reduced for some months because a certain physician with a large practice left the staff after a difference of opinion and as a result brought no more patients to that hospital. Interpretation of this factor would illumine the drop in income. No statistics or charts could tell that story!

The executive will interpret his statistical report in divers ways. The secretary of a family agency might one month stress the importance of divorce as a factor in family dependency and explain some of the reasons for it. Another month, he might call attention to physical disability and explain those factors in it which would defy statistical analysis but would be revealed by the case records of the organization and the experience of the workers.

In these ways the statistical record can be given life and significance. The sole purpose of statistics, charts, graphs, and explanatory words is to give an interpretation of the work of the agency, of the problems it faces, and of the measures it must take to meet those problems. The resourceful executive, therefore, will take every possible opportunity to interpret those statistics by word and by chart. Thus illumined, those data will have significance to all who read or hear the agency's report—including especially the board, the executive, and his staff.

FALLACIES IN STATISTICS. Some statistics may fail of their purpose if they are not themselves illuminating and based on real distinctions. The ancient joke that there are three kinds of liars—liars, damned liars, and statisticians—may be applied to social service organizations as well as to others.

The playground director who counts one more boy every time a youngster comes into the yard (even though the same boy comes three times a day, perhaps runs across the street to chase a baseball, and then comes back) or merely looks at the playground and guesses "five hundred" (and guesses liberally so as to make no error on the

wrong side) is another kind of liar. So also is the social settlement worker who counts a little girl as one more user of the settlement every time she registers for a different club or class, so that if she belongs to ten groups she is ten little girls. Some not very competent agencies have been known to count a family every time a member came to the agency's office to ask for advice or help. We were almost (but not quite) fooled once by an agency which reported that it had given away 3,000 pounds of coal in a year. That sounded like a lot of coal until we reflected that 3,000 pounds is one and one-half tons. Ho-hum!

One experienced social worker expresses the dangers of fallacious statistics in the following words:

> On statistics in group work, personally I should spend more time in describing the process, such as clubs, athletic fields, etc., than number of people. The statistics of a group organization should cover the number of group activities undertaken, and then the average attendance upon each activity. This will avoid that terrible result usually secured when all the people who come to any activity are added together so that we sometimes get a result greater than the entire population of the city. If, however, it could be said that there are three athletic teams, five study groups, one dramatic group, etc., and that each of them has an average attendance, or even membership, of so many, no such impossible totals could be presented.

In plain honesty, statistics should be based on valid distinctions and on a fair count of the activities of the agency.

As has already been suggested in our discussion of the charting of finances, charts also may lie in their presentation of statistical relationships. This would be the case when the chart begins at 100 per cent instead of 0, or when units of measurement are drawn on a scale which makes the fluctuation in agency activities seem unduly large or small. To the above groups of liars might therefore be added a fourth, the chart maker. Fallacious statistical charts and curves, however, increasingly carry their own penalty for the person who falsifies them. People are more and more learning good statistical and cartographic methods. One who either willfully or ignorantly falsifies such material will dig his own grave through the distrust of him and his agency that will be built up in the minds of all informed persons who see it.

One inherent fallacy, in addition to those of willfulness or ignorance, may be found in statistics: Ordinarily they do not interpret in human values the quality of the service rendered. Statistics present a count of numbers, whether in terms of human beings, of dollars,

or of acts. Numbers unaided cannot well show the quality of service rendered. One solution may lie in comparisons between statistics of like organizations, as when the figures of an agency of known excellence are compared with those of an agency of unknown excellence. For example, if a children's institution of admittedly competent dietary management has a food cost of 75 cents per child per day, whereas for an institution of unknown standards this cost is 50 cents, suspicion might arise that the second was not feeding its children adequately. Further investigation of the latter institution, however, might show economies of purchasing, or the receipt of large quantities of canned goods from the religious denomination to which the agency belonged, or some other factor which would legitimately reduce food costs. On the other hand, the first institution might be wasting considerable food and not giving a well-balanced diet. But comparative statistics may well be used, if merely to reveal a basis for inquiring into the quality of the service of the agencies whose work is compared.

UNIFORM STATISTICS. The qualitative value of comparative statistics suggests the self-evident fact that all social agencies which perform similar work in a community should use uniform service reports and uniform definitions of the classifications of their service, so that their work can be compared. Uniform definitions of statistical classifications are just as important as uniform classifications of fiscal accounts. It does little good to attempt to compare the cost per patient per day of hospitals, if in one of two maternity hospitals each mother and child are counted as two separate patients and in the other the mother and child are counted as one patient. In family case work agencies, public and private, difference may exist as to definitions of what constitutes a major care case and what a minor. All of these difficulties can be removed by careful analysis and by a growing understanding, on the part of social workers, of the importance of comparative figures.

Uniformity can more readily be secured if the community council of social agencies has a research department and a competent research committee, which work for uniformity of statistical procedures among the agencies and prepare comparable data for common use.

Manifestly, uniform statistical reports are desirable for social agencies throughout the country. Much progress in this direction has been made through the collection of data on volume and costs of services which, as already noted, was initiated some years ago by Community Chests and Councils, Inc., and the University of Chi-

cago, then taken over, developed, and extended by the Federal Children's Bureau, and most recently, because of the loss of federal appropriation, returned on a limited basis to Community Chests and Councils, Inc. This activity has been of great value in improving the quality of social service and community planning and in giving social agencies everywhere an opportunity to analyze their problems in terms of the experience of other communities and of other social agencies.

Through the development of these data it has been possible for the co-operating communities to make use of what might be called a "social service weather map" for each community and for a large part of the nation. This map shows the storms, the tempests, the fair weather, and the high and low temperatures of human welfare. If fully developed, these data will enable the whole country to predict the need for humanitarian activity, to plan great preventive measures, and to conduct social work on a higher plane than has been possible—with most communities going their own statistical way and many going no way at all.

That far-flung statistical plan would be the natural result of the development of good statistics in each individual social agency. Just as the health of the community is the health of the individual, so also good statistical activity on the part of each social agency will give data which may be useful to the nation as a whole. Adequate service reporting, statistically sound, is a vital factor in the successful administration of any social agency which wishes either to conduct its own work competently or to relate that service effectively to the social work of the community and of the nation. Brighten the statistical corner where you are!

QUESTIONS

1. In some typical social agency with which you are familiar, what use does the board make of agency statistics?

2. What use does the executive make of them?

3. What is the relation of the staff to statistical procedures?

4. Does the agency have a committee on statistics? If so, what are the qualifications of its members and what do they do about the agency's statistics?

5. What material does this agency have for statistics?

6. What mechanism does it use for collecting and assembling its statistics?

7. What comparisons of past and present data does it use?

8. How, if at all, does it use graphic methods in statistical presentation?

9. What other interpretation does it give to its statistics?

10. What fallacies can you detect in its collection or presentation of statistics?

11. Is this agency a participant in a community and/or a national plan of uniform statistical presentation? If so, what are the features of this plan?

12. How do you think the statistical procedure of this agency could be improved?

Chapter XXIV

Purchasing and Stock Keeping

ACCOUNTING AND BUDGETING INVOLVED. Both accounting and budgeting methods are applicable to the problem of purchasing the supplies and the equipment for a social agency. The data for the accounts of expenditures are derived from two main sources—salaries and purchases. Purchasing procedures must produce accurate and up-to-date records of expenditure. The budget also is involved in this problem, for the amount of purchases determines very largely whether the organization is keeping within its budgetary allowances for supplies and equipment. Purchasing therefore is one of the products of budgeting as well as one of the reasons for good accounting.

IMPORTANT TO ADMINISTRATION. Effective purchasing methods are basic to good administration. Careful purchasing will mean economy for the organization. In it may lie all the difference between good and bad food for the inmates of an institution, between equipment which gives satisfaction over a long period and that which is unsatisfactory and quickly wears out, or between supplies consumed in the work of the organization and those which are not adapted to the work and have to be thrown away eventually or sold at a loss. For example, a careful purchaser will order just enough printed matter for a given use. A careless purchaser may order either too much—with the result that the surplus has to be disposed of at a loss—or too little, with the result that more has to be ordered at increased cost. Effective purchasing is without doubt one of the cardinal factors in the economical and efficient management of a social agency.

CENTRALIZATION OF PURCHASING VITAL. One of the first principles of effective purchasing is that all buying, whether the agency is large or small, shall be in the hands of one competent individual. It may be the executive, his secretary, the office manager, or a special purchasing agent. In some cases it may be advisable to provide that purchases under $25 or even under $10 in value may be authorized by

a sub-executive, and those over this sum by the executive. Who is to be made responsible for purchasing, and the amount of time he is to give to it, will depend on the size of the agency and the complexity of the purchasing problem; but the fact remains that all orders for supplies should come from one responsible and well-informed person. Only in this way can confusion be avoided, duplication of purchases eliminated, unnecessary buying prevented, and supplies and equipment utilized to their full value.

This principle of centralized purchasing in the agency cannot be overemphasized. If an employee insists on buying without authorization, wth consequent wastage of funds, he may be restrained by being made to pay for unauthorized purchases. One lesson of this nature will usually result in his making purchases through the proper agent.

The purchasing agent should have the right to question any proposed purchase, to suggest the sharing of equipment rather than the purchase of duplicate equipment, to propose the purchase of second-hand rather than new equipment, and to take any other measures necessary to insure the purchase, at the lowest possible cost, of only those articles which are necessary. He should know thoroughly the whole organization, its equipment, and its commodities. In an elaborately organized social agency he may well be a valuable and well-paid executive. Through judicious and painstaking buying he will save his salary many times over.

COMMITTEE ON PURCHASING. If the agency's purchases are large in amount and diversified in type, it may be helpful to have a committee on purchasing, made up of persons qualified in the various areas of buying. Its chairman should be a member of the board, and its secretary will be the purchasing agent.

STANDARDS IN PURCHASING. A prerequisite of much of an agency's purchasing should be the setting of standards for articles to be purchased. Buying should not be done merely by brand, by trademark, or at the whim of a purchaser who happens to know some affable salesman. A sensible procedure is to make a purchase analysis similar to a job analysis, to determine the use of the proposed purchase and the requirements essential for it to fulfill that use, and to buy on the basis of those specifications. For example, many institutions do, and practically all should, buy their canned fruits on the basis of standards of quality, such as syrup content and the like. Printed matter should be ordered only after a study of the weight of paper nec-

essary to obtain a given result, the quality and color of the paper, the color of ink, the size of the type, the size of the page, and so on has been made, and the size of a booklet or form should be determined according to the size of the paper stock from which it can be cut most economically.

Tests should be made, if necessary, to determine the least expensive article which will fill a given purpose. For instance, record cards are of various qualities. Cards made of linen rag are long-lived but expensive, and this high quality may be unnecessary for pledge cards which are to be used for only a short time in a financial campaign. Printing and paper salesmen may be able to give sound advice on the most economical ways in which to prepare printed matter. Salesmen for various commodities or equipment can often make helpful suggestions as to the kinds which in their opinion will be necessary to meet certain needs. Sometimes standards of performance can be set by trying out different kinds of equipment—such as typewriters and adding machines—as to speed of operation, durability, and so forth before the purchase is made. By study, experimentation, and demonstration the social agency can determine the least expensive commodity or equipment which will meet a given need and then purchase on that basis. Once this standard is set, the organization should continue its purchasing in accordance with it until further experimentation and demonstration produce a more satisfactory standard.

Many savings can be made by following the procedure of one large agency which, we once observed, did not print the names of its officers on letterheads. It could therefore buy at one time a supply sufficient for several years, because, although the official personnel changed, its name and address did not. Most social agencies order letterheads at least once a year. Usually there is considerable waste because of leftover letterheads which have to be thrown away or overprinted, or because additional letterheads have to be bought in small quantities until the annual meeting and election of officers so that there will not be a surplus supply of stationery. The agency cited above saved about 50 per cent on the cost of letterheads by the simple process of standardization. Maybe the agency lost as much, though, through missing the prestige value of prominent names on its letterhead. Quién sabe?

Certain small commodities need not be standardized. They are bought so infrequently and cost so little that the development of a

standard costs more in time than is justified by any possible saving. On the other hand, even so inexpensive an item as lead pencils may amount to $50 or so a year in a moderate-sized social agency. Standardization on the cheapest satisfactory pencil may save half this price. Mechanical pencils may save even more.

By cutting the corners and by standardization the social agency can save money to put into the constructive aspects of its work.

USE OF REQUISITIONS. The foundation of good purchasing, after standards have been set—or perhaps even before this (depending on whether or not the individual who wants the article knows what he really wants)—is the use of a requisition blank. The purchasing agent should never make out an order without a written request from the individual who wishes it. This request should be made out on a standard requisition form. The form may be merely a single sheet—dittoed, mimeographed, or printed. If the organization is more complex, a duplicate form may be used. The original would go to the purchasing agent, and the copy would be held by the department from which the order originates. If standards have been set for the article, they should be stated on the requisition, together with the price if it is known. Written requisitions prevent errors and recriminations between the purchasing agent and the individuals for whom he is buying. These little documents also provide a means for checking on the carelessness or the economy of the various departments of the organization. The requisitioner is on the spot!

Some agencies do not require that a special requisition form be filled out but do stipulate that all requests for purchase shall be in writing. Nevertheless, in whatever form it appears, the written requisition would seem for most agencies to be the only satisfactory basis for effective purchasing.

If the requisition is for a purchase of small cost, it may be sufficient for the agent to issue a purchase order immediately. If, however, the purchase involves a large amount of money (varying in different organizations from $5 up to perhaps $50 as the minimum figure) the approval of the executive or his responsible representative should also be necessary to make sure that the purchase is in line with organization policy and within the budget and the funds available.

SECURING BIDS. After the receipt of the requisition, the next activity of the purchasing agent in most social agencies is to get bids from dealers or manufacturers—provided of course that the requisition gives valid specifications.

(*a*) *Written Specifications.* If specifications have not been established, the "P.A." should set them up in conference with the person who has made the requisition and then get bids. Bids should be submitted on the basis of written statements which cover all the specifications of the commodity or equipment. Specifications must be uniform for all bidders. Do not let a vendor write the specifications; he may phrase them so that only his product or article can meet them!

The agency will usually find it wise to specify that the union label shall appear on all printed matter intended for use with union members.

(*b*) *Give All Competent Firms a Chance to Bid.* All concerns which the social agency thinks may be able to supply the article should be asked to bid on it. This may be done either by mailing the specifications to dealers or by asking their salesmen to call personally to discuss them. Although articles which do not involve a large sum of money may be bought without bids, all purchases of considerable cost should be bid upon. This is necessary both for the sake of economy in purchasing and also in order to give all the dealers in the community who can supply the commodity and presumably are entitled to equal consideration an opportunity to secure the business.

(*c*) *Fairness to All Bidders.* Bids must be handled on the basis of absolute equality and justice. No dealer who has made a bid should be told someone else bid lower and that he can have the order if he lowers his price. The dealer who is high has had his chance and should not be given another opportunity. If a lower price is possible, he should have given it in the beginning. Besides, the beating down of bids causes distrust on the part of vendors and probably results in their figuring higher than they expect to sell, in the expectation of lowering their prices later on.

Salesmen should expect and receive absolutely fair treatment. They should be convinced, by courteous reprimand if necessary, that the purchaser is not to be influenced by arguments of friendship, by gifts, by the opportunity to make personal purchases at a discount, or by any other consideration. The fact that a salesman may represent a firm which has contributed to the agency and whose president is a member of the agency's board should not be a valid argument for giving that firm the business.

The purchasing agent is in a position full of temptations. He must avoid the slightest semblance of accepting favors which may

seem to give the salesman an excuse for asking favors in return. The one basis of purchase should be the lowest price, with reasonable assurance of delivery when needed, on standard specifications.

(*d*) *Bids in Writing, with Samples when Necessary.* Bids should be required in writing. They should be checked carefully with the specifications to make sure that all the requirements have been met. Sometimes a printer will figure on a different basis from the specifications and blandly state that, although the paper he suggests is somewhat different from that specified, it is equivalent. No such subterfuge should be allowed. Standard specifications should be adhered to. Salesmen should be required, when necessary, to give samples of commodities, such as canned goods. The goods when delivered should be checked against these samples.

PURCHASE ORDERS. The purchase order should always be in writing. It should cover all the specifications stated in the bid, including every item of price, quantity, quality, time and method of delivery, and any other item that is necessary. These terms may be stated in a letter to the vendor. A carbon copy is kept by the agency. Still better—and the practice in most social agencies—is the use of a triplicate or quadruplicate order form serially numbered. The serial number is important, since by its use unauthorized persons cannot place personal orders in the name of the agency. Further, each purchase can be properly recorded and listed. All orders should be signed by the purchasing agent. The executive's signature also may be needed on important orders.

The order and the various carbon copies may be of different colors to indicate various uses. One purchasing agent suggests the following differentiation:

> A white copy is sent to the vendor. A yellow copy is first forwarded to the receiving clerk, who checks the material as received and notes the condition and any shortage or breakage. It is then returned to the purchasing department for filing by order number. The pink copy is first sent to the disbursing clerk as her authorization for the payment of the bill. Then it is filed with the copy of the voucher, the bid, the requisition, the bill of lading, and other pertinent documents. The blue copy goes to the department originating the requisitions so that it may be advised as to the source, specifications, and cost of the material ordered.

Order forms take various shapes and sizes, from 4 by 6 inches up through other sizes to 9 by 12 inches or larger. It seems good practice, however, to standardize on a form 8½ by 11 inches, which can

be easily filed. Another good size would be that of the voucher check, so that the carbon copy of the purchase order can be filed with the copy of the check in the voucher file.

Written records of all purchases, and enough copies to give the necessary information to all persons concerned, are essential to satisfactory and economical purchasing for any social agency.

PURCHASE RECORDS. More formal records of purchasing than would come merely from the financial accounts of the social agency may be desirable.

A scrapbook may be kept in which are pasted copies of all printed matter produced by the organization, together with the name of the printer, the amount ordered, the date, and the cost for each item.

A record of the business done with each firm with which the agency deals may also be kept in the files, through the use of a folder for that firm. In that folder copies of all the orders are filed, together with samples or photographs of any commodities which can be handled in this way. Comments on the service given by the commodity or equipment may be dictated and filed with the purchase record as a guide to future purchasing.

A card ledger may be kept of all purchases of commodities. Each card would give an item's name, its trade name if there is one, the date of purchase, the grade, the total price paid, and the price for each unit.

By these devices the purchasing agent can study the prices which have been paid; estimate his expenditures for the coming year, and check up on purchases and the bids made on them in the light of past experience. A purchase record thus adapted to the needs of a social agency may be helpful in placing orders with the dealers who can render the most satisfactory service and in setting up specifications which will bring economy and satisfaction in use.

RECEIVING PURCHASES. The receiving of purchases is an important but often neglected function. Just as the agency should have one person responsible for purchasing, so also it should have one responsible for receiving all articles purchased. This person may be the purchasing agent or the office boy, or anyone else who can be held responsible, up to the head of an elaborate receiving department and store room to which all goods are sent when delivered. If no one is responsible for the receipt of purchases, the individual for whom the order was issued may perhaps wait for his material for days after its arrival because no one has thought to tell him of its arrival. Im-

portant purchases may sometimes actually be lost because the delivery boy has not given them to the proper person. Centralized receiving is essential to the proper handling of purchases.

The person who has this duty should have a copy of each order. He should never sign for delivery until he has checked the material to make sure that it is in accordance with the specifications as to number, quality, and condition. Printers sometimes give their customers short measure. Sometimes a delivery boy breaks an article, and if no check-up is made on delivery he can claim that it was all right when it left his hands.

The stock clerk does not have to count every envelope in delivery of an alleged 25,000. It would probably be sufficient to count the number of packages and multiply that number by the number said to be in each box.

Prompt checking before the delivery boy leaves will correct errors due to the receipt of the wrong article or failure to deliver all of the order.

Some institutions may wish to make more elaborate tests of merchandise delivered. One hospital purchasing agent writes, "In the case of paints, oils, chemicals, soaps, and such materials, spot samples are taken and analyzed in our chemical laboratory." Precautions are necessary to prevent substitution by unscrupulous dealers.

Some institutions make doubly sure of accuracy in receiving goods by requiring duplicate receipts. One is sent to the accounting office to be made a part of the record of the purchase, and the other is kept in the store room for the stock record.

RETURNING PURCHASES. When goods have to be returned because they are unsatisfactory or for some other reason, the transaction should be managed as carefully as a purchase. As Frank E. Chapman says:[1] "Goods returned should be listed in duplicate, as in receiving, in detail; the carbon copy should be returned to the store room, the original sent to the accounting office for follow-up and prompt receipt of credit from the vendor of the commodity." Goods should not be returned for credit until arrangements have been made with the vendor.

STOCK ISSUANCE ON REQUISITION. Supplies and equipment should be watched as carefully as money, because, after all, they are money in another form. Every social agency should have either a stock room or a cabinet that is locked. The key to this compartment should be

[1] *Hospital Organization and Operation.* The Macmillan Company, New York, 1924.

kept by the one who is responsible for supplies. No one else should be allowed access to it. Supplies should only be issued (unless the whole purchase has been made for one individual or department) on the basis of written requisition slips, O.K.'d by the proper authority—for example, the office manager.

STRATEGY IN HANDLING SUPPLIES. The stock clerk should not merely be a filler of orders. He should also be a strategist in planning the use of surplus material and in keeping his stock from accumulating. Chapman again suggests: "Those responsible for purchasing should carefully watch to see that existing stocks are issued either for the purpose intended or for some substituted purpose to which they can be applied, and to insure against the necessity for stocks of several articles the character and use of which are identical. To illustrate, there is no justification for a large purchase of canned peaches when there is an oversupply of canned pears in the store room."

STOCK RECORD. A card record should be kept (except in very small agencies) of all goods received in the stock room. This record should give the name of the commodity and the firm from which it was purchased. It should also list the number of articles received. Each time any of the supply is issued, the amount withdrawn should be recorded and the balance still available should be shown. Each card should indicate the danger line below which the stock should not be allowed to drop. Whenever the supply on hand has reached this line, the purchasing agent should be advised so that a new supply can be ordered. One of the greatest causes of inefficiency in any social agency office may be failure to watch the stock carefully. The agency then runs out of letterheads, envelopes, or some other important article, has to put through a rush order without waiting for bids, pays for overtime work, and suffers from delay which may be costly. A careful stock record system will prevent such difficulties.

SHORT CUT IN CONTROL OF STATIONERY AND OFFICE SUPPLIES. A short cut in control of stationery and office supplies is presented in *Work Simplification Ideas*, Bulletin No. 4, published in August, 1946, by the National Office Management Association, as follows:

Common Practice: To maintain inventory records of stationery and supplies, recording deliveries and withdrawals from bulk supplies and reordering when minimum is reached.

Short Cut Idea: Keep no stock record of stationery or office supplies. A predetermined quantity of principal items, representing one-month, three-months, or six-months supply, according to the delivery time, is

segregated and marked "Reserve Stock." When the first delivery is made from the "Reserve Stock," the stock clerk notifies the responsible person and a reorder purchase requisition is written from reference to the requisitioner's copy of the previous purchase order.

SUPPLIES AND THE BUDGET. The issuance of supplies may be an important factor in budget control. One hospital purchasing agent writes: "Each department has a budget allotment for its various requirements. Requisitions as received are checked with the disbursing clerk's records which show the amount spent and contracted for during the current fiscal year. This is done before the order is issued. In case there is not sufficient allowance to cover that amount, the purchase of the article is suspended until an additional appropriation is secured."

MAKING STOCK ISSUANCE EASY. The use of a store room and of requisitions need not be a handicap in office procedure. Each week the office manager may make out requisitions for the supplies which will probably be needed during the week ahead, on the basis of an inventory of the supplies in the desks of the clerks and typists. Another possibility is to have a stock cabinet in the office. In the cabinet letterheads, envelopes, carbon paper, and other small essentials are kept. This cabinet is restocked every Saturday or Monday by the office boy or a clerk, on the basis of requisitions. From it typists and stenographers may take supplies as needed. The fundamental point is to have some record of the income and outgo of supplies so that waste can be traced, unusual use checked, budget allowances kept within control, and supplies reordered before they give out.

STOCK INVENTORY. In addition to the perpetual inventory or stock record which the card record system provides for the stock room, the social agency, unless it is very small, will find it worth while to have an annual or semi-annual inventory made to see what stock is on hand and to figure out uses for that stock for which the intended use has not materialized. Careful analysis in inventory will often prevent unnecessary purchases and waste of stock for which a secondary use could be found. At the same time such an analysis will facilitate the clearing out of commodities no longer needed. Thus space will be given for incoming stock, overcrowding of the shelves will be prevented, and demands for further space may be eliminated.

STOCK ROOM. Whether the stock room is a small steel cabinet, a closet with built-in shelves, or a large room or several rooms, the

stock should be arranged in an orderly manner. The room should have an ample supply of shelves, preferably of steel in interchangeable units which can be adjusted as to height and readily put up and taken down. Supplies should be arranged in orderly fashion on the shelves, with similar articles together.

There should be some indication as to the contents of the stock cabinet or room. A typed index or guide may be pasted on the cabinet door. The shelves on which the articles are kept may be numbered and the number written on the stock record cards. Labels may be glued or tacked on the shelves to indicate articles in packages. A sample of contained printed matter may be attached to the outside of each parcel.

No one except the stock clerk should be allowed to return anything to the stock room. In this way he is held responsible for the location of all supplies and should know where everything is. Then all stock may be conveniently found without loss of time and without waste of material that is misplaced and cannot be discovered.

EQUIPMENT RECORD. In addition to a record of supplies, the stock clerk should keep a record of all the equipment which belongs to the agency. Each article should be numbered either with a metal tag which can be tacked onto wooden furniture or with a gummed label which can be pasted on metal equipment and shellacked so that it will not be defaced or rubbed off. The name and number of each piece of equipment should be listed in a card-file equipment record. There the location of each item should be clearly indicated, and notation made of any transfers. Social agencies have sometimes been completely at sea as to how many typewriters they owned, whether they had sent back some of their own to the typewriter company with the machines rented for a financial campaign, or whether certain small pieces of office equipment were personal property or the agency's own. Seasonal equipment, such as electric fans, typewriters needed only in rush seasons, and similar articles should be kept covered in the stock room when not in use and issued only on requisition. The equipment record is just as important as the stock record.

Inventory should be taken at least annually to make sure that all the agency's property is on hand in good shape. A record of this nature will help to discourage thoughtless or unscrupulous employees from taking equipment home for their own use and failing to return it. Some individual should be held responsible and chargeable for each piece of equipment. Only in these ways can loss and theft

be prevented and the agency be given assured possession of its own property.

To cover contingencies, all equipment and furniture should be insured against loss by fire, storm, or theft.

PAYMENT FOR PURCHASES. The final step in purchasing is payment and accounting for the articles purchased. Purchasing systems should make payment easy and accurate and should provide records of the whole transaction readily available for the bookkeeping system.

(*a*) *Check Bills Carefully.* The authority for each payment should be the documents in the transaction, including the original requisition, a copy of the order and of the delivery slip properly O.K.'d by the receiving clerk, or a copy of the receiving clerk's slip. All this material should be attached to the bill.

As one purchasing agent says: "All delivery slips are checked with invoices, and the invoices are O.K.'d by the purchasing agent or, in case of unusual purchases, by the general secretary or his assistant before they are sent to the cashier's department for payment."

One executive counsels: "It is sound practice to require, except in very large organizations, that the executives should O.K. all bills before they are paid. If not the 'chief,' then the head of the department for which the goods were purchased should do this."

The utmost precaution should be taken to make sure that payments are made only for commodities that have been purchased with proper authorization, have been received in good condition, and are in accordance with all the specifications of the order.

(*b*) *Pay Promptly and in Full.* Courtesy and good public relations require that bills be paid promptly. Economy suggests payment in time to take advantage of special rates of discount, such as two per cent for cash on delivery, within ten days after delivery, or within ten days after the first of the month. The agency which takes advantage of discount terms, unless the terms of the contract specify otherwise, can save a considerable amount of money during the year. The advantages of prompt payment are so great that it may even be wise for the agency to borrow the money for this purpose and to buy from those concerns whose prices it finds best, rather than to be bound by chains of unpaid bills to vendors who purposely raise their prices to cover the loss expected through slow payment. Of course a member agency of a community chest could usually receive from the chest, on proper request, enough money to pay all bills promptly. That is good public relations both for the agency and for the chest!

Sometimes agencies are beguiled into purchasing fairly expensive equipment on the installment plan. Pay cash when possible. For example, one vendor suggested that a social agency purchase an automatic stoker for $1,200 on the installment plan, with payments to run over a year and with the assurance that the machine would pay for itself out of savings in fuel. The agency was able to cut $75 off the price by paying cash from the money on hand in its current checking account. It would have been ahead of the game even if it had had to borrow the money at 4 per cent in order to pay on a cash basis. The year's interest on $1,200 would be $48, as against the $75 saved in the purchase price, or a difference of $27. Even $27 is worth saving if only for the sake of convincing the vendor, who may also be a contributor, that the agency is trying to make the money he gives go as far as possible at the lowest possible cost.

(c) *Do Not Ask for Special Discounts.* Do not ask for special discounts because your agency is a charity and hard up. You may get the discount but lose many times its amount in a contribution which should have been given by the vendor. Of course, if he offers the discount because he is really interested, that is something else! Better keep your purchasing and your contribution getting as separate as possible.

(d) *Voucher Check for Payment.* Payment should be made by means of a duplicate or voucher check, divided into two parts, as already suggested. The lower half should carry the record of the transaction and a statement of the exact items for which payment is made. This voucher (the lower half) is torn off from the check itself (the upper half) before the check is cashed. Cashing of the check constitutes acceptance of the payment as covering the terms of the transaction listed and helps to absolve the purchaser from further responsibility. The carbon copy of the voucher is attached to the other documents and filed as part of the permanent record. If two carbons are made, as is sometimes done, one may be filed chronologically, the other alphabetically.

Payment thus is the final step in a long chain of transactions which mean the competent handling of the purchases of the organization. Businesslike procedure will save money, give full value for the money spent, prevent waste, and build up in the community a worth-while reputation for sound management. This reputation will have an advantageous effect on the co-operation given to the agency by the public and on the contributions which it receives, directly or through the community chest.

QUESTIONS

1. In a typical social agency with which you are familiar, is the purchasing centralized? If so, in whom?

2. How is centralized purchasing enforced?

3. Are purchasing standards established for various commodities? If so, how?

4. Are requisition blanks used before purchase? If so, how?

5. Are bids secured on all or part of the purchases? On what part? How?

6. What use is made of samples?

7. Are purchase orders used? What kind? How?

8. What purchase record has the agency? What use is made of it?

9. How is receipt of purchases handled?

10. What is done about "returns"?

11. Is stock issued on requisition? If so, what kind, and how?

12. Is a stock record used? What kind, and how?

13. Is the stock inventoried? How often, and what use is made of the information thus secured?

14. Has the agency a stock room or stock cabinets, and how are they arranged?

15. Does the agency keep an equipment record? What kind, and how is it handled?

16. What principles are followed in the payment for purchases?

17. How might this agency improve its practice in any of these respects?

Chapter XXV

Public Relations

EVERY ACTIVITY OF THE AGENCY AFFECTS PUBLIC OPINION. The good name which is gained by a social agency from careful and economical purchasing and payment is only part of the high repute which it should attempt to build up through a well-planned public relations program. The publicity-minded organization will study every activity of its employees, every aspect of its appearance, and every phase of its policy with a view to developing good will and understanding. These attitudes in turn will be expressed in the co-operation of citizens, in the use of the agency by those whom it is intended to serve, and in a fuller measure of funds necessary for carrying on its work. There is not space here for a lengthy discussion of public relations (to which an entire book could be devoted and on which many books have been written), nor is there any need for a detailed discussion of the subject in the small space available. A few general principles, however, may be worth suggesting for the administrator who wishes to elaborate them and to apply them in detail.

(*a*) *Public Relations vs. Publicity.* Of late years a distinction has been drawn between public relations and publicity. Public relations is held to be the total relationship of the agency to the community, and the public relations program is the means by which that relationship is purposefully directed in behalf of the agency. Publicity is the use of various media of communication (such as the press, radio, motion pictures, printed matter, and so forth) by which information regarding the agency is disseminated. The publicity man of a generation ago (we used to be one) has become the director of public relations of today (we now employ one).

(*b*) *Appearances Count.* A vital principle of public relations is that every aspect of the agency and its work has its part in the attitude of the public toward the agency and hence is a factor in its public relations—in its creation of good will or ill will. In the ap-

pearance of the agency's office, its building and grounds, its automobile, or its workers may lie all the difference between a businesslike and an unbusinesslike impression—between one of economy and one of extravagance, one of simplicity and one of elaborateness, one of efficiency and economy and one of wastefulness. Indeed, the very name of the agency, its statement of purpose, and its democratic or undemocratic method of electing officers as prescribed in the constitution and bylaws may be important factors in public relations. The zealous executive examines every phase of his organization to make sure that it presents such community relationships as will build up the kind of public attitude he desires.

(c) *Attitude of Workers.* More than this, the attitude of the workers themselves is a factor in public opinion. Does the telephone operator have a voice "with a smile"? Is the reception clerk courteous to all, or is she abrupt and curt to those she thinks unimportant? Is the information clerk quick and obliging, or does she give the impression she is trying to save herself as much trouble as possible? Do case workers in their contact with employers, relatives, and neighbors of clients give an impression of courtesy, considerateness, sympathy, and understanding which will build good will toward the organization, or are they abrupt and domineering? The attitude of the agency's personnel is likely to affect the attitude of the public.

(d) *Quality of Service.* The quality of the agency's service is a fundamental aspect of public relations. If applicants for service are cared for promptly, adequately, courteously, and considerately, and if prompt reports of the action taken are given to those individuals or organizations by which the clients were referred to the agency, the news will spread quickly. It will be an aid in the agency's efforts to maintain and improve its public relations. On the other hand, the most fervid and ingenious publicity devices in the world cannot succeed in securing support for a social agency that is dilatory, slovenly, unsympathetic, inadequate, and ineffective in its service. It is true of agencies, as of individuals, that "actions speak louder than words."

CONTINUOUS PUBLIC RELATIONS POLICY NECESSARY. Words, too, are necessary. In addition to the favorable public opinion created by the appearance and activity of the agency, it should have a definite public relations policy in which the executive and the board are active factors. Regardless of whether the agency employs a full-time or a part-time director of public relations, the executive himself

must realize that the creation of favorable public opinion is one of his important responsibilities. He must think continually in terms of the interpretation of the work of his agency. He should either handle the publicity himself or work with the director of public relations to see that it is adequately managed.

Furthermore, the agency should have a standing committee on public relations which will give continuous attention to the creation of favorable public opinion and to the development and utilization of the various media through which the public may be reached. The public relations committee should be made up of competent technicians in the fields of publicity and public relations. The chairman should be well qualified for leadership and should be ex officio a member of the board and of the executive committee of the agency.

A public relations program should reach not only the membership of the organization but all in the community whose opinion about the agency is important. This includes practically everyone. The agency should impress upon its staff members the importance of a constructive attitude toward public relations and encourage them to submit publicity material or to make suggestions out of their own experience. Organizations with district or branch offices may well have in each of those offices a staff member responsible for submitting publicity material. The whole organization, from the reception clerk to the president, must realize that a vital part of the agency's work is to create public understanding and good will.

INTERPRETIVE PUBLICITY. The publicity material which the agency creates through various channels as part of its public relations program must, if it is to be valuable, be interpretive. Too much social work publicity is merely noise—a beating on the bass drum of the public consciousness, saying, as it were, "We are here, we are here." This is not sufficient. The publicity material must be such as to give the person who reads it a better understanding of the agency's work, the problems it meets, and the ways in which it attacks those problems. The true measure of good publicity is not quantity but quality. The test of its effectiveness is not whether everybody in town knows the name of the organization but whether everybody who knows its name knows also what it does in behalf of community welfare, what are the community problems which the agency attacks, and what are the social and economic reasons for them. Almost anyone can secure publicity about an organization, but it takes a person of understanding, imagination, and ability to secure

interpretive publicity. It is at this kind of publicity that the social agency should aim.

INEXPENSIVE PUBLICITY. Publicity material need not be expensive. The executive and the committee which plans it should not spend more money than is necessary to attain a given result effectively. On the other hand, the social agency should not be deterred from a public relations program in the thought that satisfactory results may be too expensive to attain. Public speaking is one of the most effective publicity media. It usually costs nothing beyond the trouble of securing openings for speakers and arranging for them to speak. Ingenuity in securing openings and ability in presenting the agency's message may make public speaking one of the most important phases of agency publicity. Radio publicity, too, may also be secured by the use of brains rather than money.

Newspaper publicity should not be expensive. Although it is an advantage for the social agency to have a good director of public relations who can write stories in newspaper style, the news itself is more important than the way in which it is presented. If the agency has no public relations expert available, it can still get newspaper publicity if it really is doing worth-while work, by informing the city editors of its activities so that reporters themselves may prepare the material.

Again, no large sum of money is necessary for direct-mail advertising. An important message, even if it is on wrapping paper and mailed in an inexpensive envelope or on a postal card, may if interestingly written be more widely read and do more good than a less important message stated less vividly but prepared in the most elaborate and expensive way. There again, brains and taste are more important than a heavy expenditure of funds.

AIM YOUR PUBLICITY AT A GROUP. The important factors in publicity for a social agency are to study carefully the kinds of groups to be reached, to analyze their interests, and to reach them in the least expensive way with a message which is appropriate to them. Much publicity material, unhappily, is like the shotgun or "scatter" gun, aimed only at a general objective. To be effective, publicity should be aimed at a specific object, and the rifle used should be of a caliber just sufficient to produce the desired result. It would be foolish to shoot a rabbit with an elephant gun, because there would be very little rabbit left after the bullet hit him. It would be equally foolish to try to kill an elephant with a rifle only large enough to kill a rabbit. In the same way, the director of public relations must

choose his weapons and his ammunition in terms of the interpretive goals to be reached. An elaborate and beautiful booklet may seem entirely appropriate to the wealthy citizen and may bring from him money and good will for the agency. If sent to people of modest means, that same booklet might appear extravagant and might therefore drive away far more support than it won. Case work on the elements of the agency's constituency is just as important in treating the problem of public relations as it is in treating clients of the agency.

Here are the morals of this very brief chapter: The agency's actions and appearance speaker louder than the words of the director of public relations. A strong public relations program is an important and fundamental part of the work of the social agency. For that program the staff, the executive, and the board of directors must be responsible through appropriate subdivision of responsibility. Publicity material need not be expensive. The mode of expression and transmission of the publicity material must be adapted, through long-time planning and persistent action, to the individuals who make up the groups who should be reached by it. All that the agency and its personnel, both lay and professional, do and say and are, officially and unofficially, are factors in the public relations of the agency. The public relations program utilizing these factors should be well conceived, thoughtfully executed, and continually adapted to the changing currents of community needs and attitudes. Public relations are dynamic, not static. They should be related to the environment. In turn, they continually affect that environment.

This is the gist of public relations. All that might be said further would be merely an elaboration of details based on these fundamental principles.

QUESTIONS

1. What sort of impression is made upon the public by the appearance of the building, equipment, and workers of a social agency you know?

2. What impression is given by the attitude of the workers toward the members of the public with whom they come in contact?

3. What reputation is created for the agency by the quality of its service?

4. Does this agency have a public relations policy? If so, what is it?

5. To what extent, and how, is this policy carried out through the organization?

6. Is its publicity interpretive?

7. How expensive is it?

8. To what extent is it aimed at particular groups?

9. How could these public relations policies and practices be improved?

Chapter XXVI

Financial Administration

IMPORTANCE OF COMPETENT FINANCING. It is just as important a part of management for an executive, his staff, and his board to provide for the adequate financing of their organization as it is for them to spend effectively and economically the funds made available. The service program of the organization cannot be carried out and the human needs of the community cannot be met unless adequate funds are made available. Governmental agencies rely, of course, on public appropriations. It is not our purpose here to discuss the ways in which agencies of government—federal, state, and local—wangle grants from appropriating bodies. Our discussion will be confined to private agencies and their money-securing procedures.

Our statement of the importance of competent financing is true regardless of whether the organization is a member of a community chest or not. There are now probably a thousand community chests. They exist in almost every community of over 50,000 population in the United States and Canada, in most of those of over 25,000 population, and in many smaller ones. In most of those communities, practically all the reputable agencies which make a general local appeal for funds (except the Red Cross chapters, which have been forbidden by the national organization to merge their appeals with those of the other agencies in the community) are members of community chests. Consequently our discussion will be related primarily to the financial procedures of fund-participating member agencies of chests and of the chests themselves.

Although the community chest takes the organizational responsibility for securing from the public the contributed funds necessary for the adequate operation of its member agencies, those agencies nevertheless are responsible through their boards, their staffs, and their executives for active participation in the community chest campaign.

Further, each member agency still has the responsibility of developing its other resources of income to the highest possible degree, so that the total funds may be as adequate as possible and so that contributors may not be called upon to give more than is necessary to meet that part of the agency's expenses which cannot be financed in other ways. It is just as valuable, and much more important from the standpoint of obligation to the contributing public, to secure $10,000 by the careful investment of funds or by the diligent collection of payments from patients or members of the organization as it is to help the chest raise $10,000 extra from contributors.

CO-OPERATION VS. COMPETITION IN FINANCE. The agency's sense of obligation to the contributing public is important. The persons responsible for the administration of agencies should consider their participation in united financing from the standpoint of the effect of their activities on the whole community program of social service finance and not merely from that of whether the individual agency can raise more for itself independently than through participation in the chest. Some agencies which raise their funds by separate appeals rather than through chests do sometimes secure more than the chest would allocate to them. This they are able to achieve primarily because the chest, in combining the appeals of most of the other reputable local agencies, has removed them from the area of competitive financing. In consequence the "lone wolf" may be able to make a strong if not always justified appeal. If the "lone wolf" had to compete with separate appeals by the chest-participating agencies, it would have a much more difficult time in securing the funds it desired. The vulpine organization is much like the ambulance with its shrieking siren and flashing red lights, which can dash through city traffic because the rest of the vehicles are under control.

DISADVANTAGES OF SEPARATE FINANCING. Moreover, the agency which finances itself by separate appeal usually spends in money-raising costs more of each dollar received than the low cost of operating the chest's joint financial campaign. Actually, therefore, the agency may have less money available for actual human service than if it made common cause with other agencies in the chest. Furthermore, the public usually has no assurance that the amount sought by the independent agency is actually needed or is realistically related to the total needs for social service financing in the community or to the programs of other agencies in the community. The analyses and deliberations of the chest budget committee, together with its

recommendations as approved by the chest board and incorporated in the chest campaign goal, provide a balanced program and a certification of need and of agency competence to which the giver and community are entitled. These assurances cannot well be provided by the independent agency. On it lies the burden of proof, which should be required by givers, that the independent appeal is justified as to amount and that the agency's program is both necessary to community welfare and well integrated with that of other agencies. Further, the independent agency ought to consider seriously the question as to whether it has the right to enlist busy citizens to serve in its independent campaign and to ask contributors to take the time and energy for consideration of its separate appeal, even if it is valid. This extra time and effort might be saved through participation in the chest campaign.

CHEST ADVANTAGES WELL DEMONSTRATED. The community chest's program of joint budgeting and financing of local (and perhaps national) appeals for current expense of health and welfare agencies has been amply demonstrated as the most economical and efficient method and as the best for the community. Therefore all conscientious board and staff members of reputable agencies which are still not members of chests should consider well their obligation to strengthen the program of joint social service financing in the community by participation in the chest, rather than to diminish its serviceability by remaining aloof and competitive. The day for individualism in social service finance has as surely passed in the local community as has the day of legitimate competitive nationalism in the world.

DUTY TO MAKE THE CHEST EFFECTIVE. All the more true is it, therefore, that board members, executives, and staff members of that great majority of local agencies which do participate in chests should do their utmost to make their chests effective. This is a matter both of community obligation and of enlightened self-interest. Only as the chest achieves its carefully wrought goals can each participating agency receive the contributed funds necessary to fulfill its agreed-upon program of human service.

A MATTER OF NATIONAL IMPORTANCE. Indeed, this is not merely a local obligation. It is one of national importance. Just as the competence and repute of one agency in a community affects the operation and reputation of all other agencies there, so also does the competence and reputation of one chest affect all other chests. Our

citizens move from community to community; consequently their knowledge of the chest in their former home town affects their attitude toward and their support of the chest in the new one. Moreover, our citizens have innumerable interconnections with other communities. The performance of one community chest therefore affects for good or ill that of many others. This is especially true now that the national organization, Community Chests and Councils, Inc., has adopted the national emblem of the red feather and has secured its general adoption as a trade-mark by local chests and their member agencies, which are known in national and local publicity as Red Feather Services. Their slogan might be "Hang Together, Wear the Feather!" Clearly, the use of a trade-mark, though advantageous from many points of view, involves the special obligation, on the part of all chests and agencies thus distinguished but bound by common bonds, to give the highest possible significance to their common insignia.

USE OF NATIONAL CERTIFICATIONS. For many reasons, then, all persons responsible for the administration of Red Feather Services, whether chests and councils or member agencies, will find it wise to promote public understanding of sound methods of agency financing. They will strive to inform givers regarding the importance of stopping, looking, and listening before they give to uncertified or unknown appeals. They will promote effective local investigatory services by better business bureaus and appeals review boards. Particularly will these citizens use, and urge others to make use of, the data about national agencies that make local appeals which may be secured through the National Budget Committee and the National Information Bureau. Both are sponsored and aided by Community Chests and Councils, Inc. No national or foreign relief appeals should be included in a local chest or, if a separate appeal is made, should be recommended to inquiring contributors—unless it has the double certification. These two national agencies render, in respect to non-local appeals, much the same service which is applied to local appeals by the community chest budget committee. Someday out of these national certifying services may arise a national chest, much like the successful but short-lived National War Fund. Who knows? The various obligations for support of the principle of balanced budgeting, joint financing, and intelligent giving lie heavily on the consciences of all persons responsibly connected with chests and the Red Feather Services. Still more heavily, perhaps, lie certain other obligations in respect to those services.

OBLIGATION TO SECURE NON-GIFT INCOME. The social agency has three obligations before it asks the public for any funds whatever, either through the chest or independently. In the first place, the agency must make sure that its program of work and its methods are such as to meet adequately and effectively (within the available resources) the need which exists. In the second place, the agency must carry on its work economically. In the third place, it must raise money from every other available legitimate source before it asks the chest or contributors for money. Securing money from contributions is only the last step in the process of social agency finance.

The amount of money which should be secured from sources other than contributions varies from agency to agency. Some have large endowments which provide a considerable proportion of the money needed through interest on invested funds or rentals from property. Other social agencies, such as hospitals, may secure a large income from pay and part-pay patients, so that the amount required from contributions is very small in proportion to the total income. The same is true of such organizations as the YMCA, the YWCA, and other character-building agencies which ordinarily receive most of their income from the membership fees of those who use their facilities. Other social agencies receive considerable appropriations from tax funds, and only the balance has to be met through contributions. All these possible sources of income manifestly should be developed to their fullest practicable extent before contributors are asked to supplement them.

INCOME FROM BENEFICIARIES. Income from beneficiaries is one of the most important sources of funds for social agencies.

(a) Charge Cost of Service to Everyone Who Can Afford It. Throughout the whole field of social work the following principle is apparent: Service should be given according to the need of the individual. The individual in turn should pay according to his ability. It is unfair, in the case of one who is willing and able to pay, to charge him less than the actual cost under the illusion that he is paying in full. It is unfair also, if the beneficiary can pay but is unwilling to do so, to charge him less than he can and should pay. To "let him off" pauperizes him and confirms him in the belief that he can secure something for nothing. This attitude is unwholesome for citizenship. Similarly, it is inequitable for one who can pay the whole cost to pay less, when others no more able to do so pay in full.

Moreover, the social agency's failure to make maximum collection of the funds which should properly be paid by the users of its

facilities is unfair to contributors. Under these circumstances the latter have to give more than they otherwise should for service to people who can afford to pay their own way.

Failure to make the full charge where it is appropriate is unfair, finally, to those in need of service. They may be denied aid because of the lack of funds which would otherwise be readily available if the proper charges had been made to those who could pay fully or in part.

Every social agency, therefore, has the obligation to be as completely self-supporting as good social treatment for those it serves will allow and as sound methods of management and collection will make possible.

Every agency should operate on this principle. Hospitals should so adjust their charges that full-pay patients really pay the cost of the service they receive and that those unable to meet all of that cost pay what they can. Character-building organizations should follow the same policy in collecting memberships and fees. Summer camps, like those of the Girl Scouts and Boy Scouts, should charge a sufficient amount to cover the full cost of each boy's outing, making reductions through scholarships for those unable to pay that cost. Child-care agencies should charge the full cost when possible to parents and guardians who can pay it and who want their children in the institution primarily because of conditions which make it undesirable for them to stay at home, whereas those who can afford to pay only in part should be required to do this. Social settlements should charge a fee for membership in clubs and classes. That fee should be graded upon the ability of the users of those activities to pay for them. Visiting nurse associations should collect from their patients what each is able to pay, up to the full cost of the nursing service. Family case work agencies and psychiatric clinics are extending their problem-solving services steadily to persons able to pay fully or in part for the consultations from which they so often derive great benefit. These clients or patients should pay for this service, up to its cost and their ability. Even the Federal Security Agency is charging for duplicate social security cards. Why not?

(*b*) *Employ Good Business Methods in Collection.* In order to keep income from earnings as high as possible, agencies must use good business methods—and good social service methods as well. Hospitals and other agencies which admit people to treatment at less than cost should have adequate social service departments which,

in addition to their other professional duties, will determine the amount of money it is fair to ask the patient to pay.

The handling of payments for service should be put on a businesslike basis. To cut collection cost, cash should be secured in advance when fair and proper, when the service is predictable as in hospital care, or when the charge is specific as in annual memberships. If payment is deferred, bills for memberships, for the use of facilities and for other services rendered should be mailed promptly when due. These bills should be followed up carefully and persistently until payment has been made. If an individual promises to pay on a partial basis—as, for example, $25 a month for four months on a hospital bill—notations as to when the payments are due should be put in the hospital tickler file, and reminders should be sent promptly on these dates.

Understanding as to the terms of payment should be clear. The social agency, however, should never be harsh. It should always relate its charge and its collection method to the welfare of the individual who is receiving the service. If the social agency is businesslike with those who have business relations with it, respect for the agency by these people and by those to whom they relate their experiences will be improved. So also will be its finances.

INCOME FROM NATURAL RESOURCES. Even free service of a social agency is subject to qualifications. Such an organization as a family welfare society has the obligation to secure all possible income from employers, relatives, and others upon whom the client has a claim. None of these resources should be neglected. The fact that an individual has contributed to an agency or to the community chest to which the agency belongs does not relieve him of obligations to members of his family or former employees. The individual presumably gives because of his general responsibility for social conditions and for human service in the community at large. He may also have a special responsibility for a former employee or a member of his family which the staff members of the agency should help him to discharge. This should be done partly for the sake of the client, who may be benefited by the knowledge that those near and dear are helping him. It should be done also for the sake of other clients who may be more adequately aided because of this help which has been received through natural resources. The social agency has no right to spend for a client any considerable sum from funds contributed by the general public, until after those who have

a particular responsibility for him have discharged that obligation up to its full extent and up to their ability and willingness to meet it. The fact that it may be easier to obtain contributed funds than to get them from the natural resources is no excuse for the social worker not to make every possible effort to develop them.

INCOME FROM PROFIT-MAKING ACTIVITIES. Some social agencies have actual profit-making activities which should be developed so far as is fair to the purchaser of the service. Among these activities are the rental of rooms by YMCA's and YWCA's, and their operation of cafeterias, clothes-pressing establishments, barber shops, beauty parlors, and so forth.

(*a*) *Service, Not Profit, the Motive.* Such activities may put reasonably priced, convenient, and satisfactory facilities within the reach of those who cannot afford to pay higher prices or would not find similar services conveniently available. These activities nevertheless should be so managed that they will not lose money. Indeed, they should have a safe margin of profit—unless they are specifically aimed at a low income group which is definitely known to be unable to pay the full cost. Even then the charges should be based on ability to pay, lest the group be pauperized and the agency's resources be dissipated.

Services may be rendered at less than cost for a period of demonstration, as in the establishment of a psychiatric clinic. Yet, as the values of the service are recognized, charges should be made to cover, so far as is socially wise, the cost of the treatment. Boarding homes for employed women and girls should be subsidized only to the extent of the inability of their "guests" to pay, as determined by case work budgeting of each case, continually revised in the light of changing circumstances.

(*b*) *Good Management Vital.* Competent business management is an essential factor in the proper conduct of income-producing activities. If, for example, a YWCA cannot serve in its cafeteria better food at no greater cost, in more wholesome surroundings and a more accessible location, to its constituency than similar food can be provided by commercial organizations, the agency had better give up its cafeteria. Similarly, a YMCA must manage its room service sufficiently well to meet commercial competition and with sufficient social judgment to provide features of protection, recreation, and guidance which commercial activities cannot afford. A social agency should be especially careful that the full cost of the service is charged where it is rendered on a commercial basis—for example, the service

supp ed by hospitals to industrial establishments in the handling of th ir accident cases, and that supplied by visiting nurse organizatio s to insurance companies in the handling of their sickness and maternity policyholders.

(c) *No Competition with Satisfactory Commercial Activities.* Manifestly the social agency, as an instrumentality of community life, has an obligation not to subsidize activities which can be carried on equally well at as low a cost by business concerns. The agency's facilities in general should be restricted to those who are in need of them and will be benefited by them. These services should not be open to the general public as a cheap substitute for commercial facilities. The costs of income-producing services in social agencies should be low, because of freedom from interest on the investment and from taxes and because the administrative cost is usually covered in part by contributions. These agencies either can charge approximately the commercial rate and make considerable money or can charge substandard rates and distract customers from normal business houses. Profit in social agency operations is not an end in itself. Good business management is merely a means toward the prevention of unnecessary loss and toward the extension of service to all who need and are entitled to that service.

(d) *Unprofitable Business Ventures Must Be Justified.* Sometimes business activities necessarily produce less than their cost of operation. An example may be found in the broom shops of associations for the blind. There the main purpose is not so much to produce income for the workers as it is to provide them with activities through which they may be more or less self-supporting. Similar in less-than-cost operations are the Good Will Industries which apply the labor of handicapped or marginal workers to salvaged materials. These industries usually cannot in their sale of the products recover the full cost of operation; the deficit is chargeable to the creation of social values. Each one of these activities should be examined from the viewpoint of its human results and should be justified by their measure. Yet business values as well should be considered. The agency should be conducted so as to produce the maximum income consistent with the well-being of the persons whom it serves. This sturdy procedure has the double principle of avoiding pauperization and of holding earnings as high as possible in order to keep demands for public contributions as low as possible.

INCOME FROM THE PUBLIC TREASURY. Another important source of income for private social agencies in some cities and states is the

public treasury. In some communities which have no public hospital, contracts are made by the city or county government with private hospitals to care for people who are unable to pay and would otherwise be sent to a public hospital if there were one. Sometimes public authorities contract with private children's institutions to care for dependent children who legally are public charges. Again, lump appropriations or contributions are sometimes made by the local government to represent some part of the public obligation toward such service of the social agency as presumably the government would assume if it had the facilities. Some state governments also make appropriations to local agencies.

Where a contractual relationship exists in terms of payment to be made for services rendered, the social agency should do its utmost to make sure that the public funds pay the full cost of the service. Conversely, public authorities should have assurance that what they pay is the actual cost of service and not an inflated amount based on political influence, should have control over intake and outgo of the persons for whom charge is made by the private agency, and should have authority, continuously enforced, to require adequate standards of care.

The question of soliciting or receiving contributions from public funds for private agencies is debatable. There is a danger that contributions from givers may suffer because the citizens feel they should "let the city or county do it." Moreover, contributions from public funds or payments for services rendered by private agencies have in many states and communities involved so many difficulties of political manipulation and logrolling that grave doubt exists as to the general desirability of "lump sum" appropriations. The better plan seems to be for the social agency to abjure public funds (except on a measured, full-paid basis) but to give such clear proof of the value of its service that either all or part of that service will be taken over as a direct responsibility of government. Then the agency may either dissolve or divert its energies and skills into other channels. Partial public financing of private social work is a dangerous expedient. It should be guarded against carefully.

INCOME FROM ENDOWMENTS. The difficulties mentioned above, however, are not usually found in a third source of institutional finance—endowment funds, the interest from which is applied to the current expenses of the organization. An endowment fund gives the agency stability and permanence and lessens the problem of raising current contributions.

(*a*) *Values and Dangers.* Endowments may be of several kinds and have various uses. Usually they are unrestricted. Then their income should be used for current expenses of the agency. Sometimes the donor or testator provides that the income shall be used for specific purposes. The principal of unrestricted endowments may be used for the construction of new buildings. In that event, however, consent of the community chest should be secured for the consequent reduction of income, for the new or enlarged program of service, and for the cost of financing it. Income from endowment and other invested funds should be used to reduce operating deficits, unless the donor or testator specifies other use or the chest agrees to it.

There is a danger if endowment funds become so great that their income is almost or entirely adequate to meet the agency's needs. Then the agency may cease struggling and be content to let well enough alone in the way of developing its service program and corresponding sources of support. Moreover, the endowed agency may become "ossified"—unresponsive to community need since it does not have to be answerable to the public through an annual appeal for funds. There is the further possibility that the endowed agency will outlive its usefulness but that because of its financial resources it will still continue fruitlessly in moribund activity.

Donors may well, therefore, consider the possibility of putting their money, by bequest or direct gifts, into the hands of trustees who are empowered to change the recipient of those funds if the need for their use changes. Still better may it be to give or bequeath the funds to a community trust or community foundation or to the trust fund of a community chest. These fiscal agencies have broad discretionary powers in the use of the income from the funds entrusted to them for welfare purposes.

It is to be hoped, however, that a progressive social agency will be so alert to its responsibility as not to let its endowment become a curse. The endowed agency should be continually aware of the need for new or modified activities. It will change the nature of the organization and the uses of its endowment funds when community needs and the methods of meeting these needs change. Endowment funds thus used may be of tremendous value.

(*b*) *Securing Endowments.* Social agencies may seek endowment funds in a variety of ways. The mere fact that an agency is well known through an effective public relations program will help. Forms of bequests may be printed in the agency's annual reports.

Booklets which describe the agency's work and letters which suggest the agency as a beneficiary of bequests may be sent to attorneys, trust officers, ministers, and others who influence bequests, as well as to wealthy citizens likely to make them. Members of the board may suggest to friends the desirability of mentioning the agency in their wills. A group of social agencies, such as those in a community council or chest, may popularize the idea of endowment funds through suitable publicity and direct-mail literature. A concerted program by discreet publicity may make it the popular and accepted thing for well-to-do and public-spirited citizens to make bequests to social work rather than to leave all their money for the personal use of their relatives or friends. The sentiment of the community toward bequests may be made a vital factor in securing endowment funds.

(*c*) *Management of Endowments.* The management of endowment funds is important. Money left by bequest should, except in extraordinary instances, be put in the permanent invested funds of the agency and not used for current expenses. Only the income should be used for these. Such investments should be handled either by a competent committee of the agency or by the trust department of a bank. Investments should be eminently safe and yet yield the maximum interest or dividends consistent with that safety.

Bequests are sometimes in the form of real estate. This the social agency should manage carefully with a view to maintaining it in good condition so that it will not decrease in value, and in a businesslike way so as to secure the maximum fair return upon the investment. Contributors without doubt have the right to demand that the largest practicable yield be secured from the agency's investments and real estate holdings before anyone is asked to help make up any residual deficit in operations.

After the social agency has done its utmost to secure funds from earnings, from tax funds, from invested funds, and from similar sources, it may properly ask the public for contributions to make up any deficit which might exist. Contributed funds may be secured in a variety of ways—some co-operative, others individualistic. Because of the prevalence of community chests and of agency participation in them, we shall confine our discussion to the financing of agency deficits through chests.

COMMUNITY CHEST PARTICIPATION. The co-operative method of securing funds is through participation in a community chest. The social agency presents its budget to the budget committee of the community chest much as it would to its own budget committee and

board of directors, following the principles and practices which have already been described. The agency should receive from the community chest as adequate a budget as is consistent with the funds available, the needs of the community and its total social resources, and the financial requirements of the other agencies in the chest.

Reciprocally, the agency has the obligation to co-operate actively in the community chest campaign and to share responsibility for its success. The agency will make available the service of its board members as solicitors and of its executive and paid staff as division secretaries and in other capacities where they may be useful. It is inadvisable to upset the whole program of the agency's work for campaign service, yet it is a good plan to have professional staff workers render part-time service as solicitors in the campaign. Through this activity they may realize the difficulties of money raising and the frequently sacrificial giving of contributors and thus become all the more careful and economical in spending that money. Membership in the community chest does not mean that the agency has given up its responsibility for financial endeavors. Rather, the agency has dropped individualized methods in favor of the advantages of co-operative financing.

CAMPAIGN PROCEDURES. It is not necessary to present a manual of campaign management. Adequate information can be secured from Community Chests and Councils, Inc.

COMPETENT COLLECTION METHODS. Securing subscriptions is not the only problem of finance for charitable purposes. Although many subscriptions are in cash, ranging in the ordinary community chest campaign from one-fifth to one-third of the amount subscribed, a considerable number usually call for later payments. The social agency must be careful to send notices promptly on the dates when payments are due and to follow up, each subsequent month, the delinquent subscribers who fail to pay within the month when the subscription is due. A blank check enclosed with the bill may speed up payment, as may an enclosed return envelope. Plain bills may be made more effective by printing on them pictures which show the kind of work that the payment will help to make possible. Pictorial and descriptive leaflets or blotters may be enclosed. If payment is not made promptly, progressively more persuasive measures may be employed.

NO COMMISSIONED COLLECTORS. Commissioned collectors should never be employed. The commission is too dangerous a device and is open to serious abuse. It is better to employ a collector, when one

is necessary, on a definite salary basis, so long as his salary represents a sufficiently satisfactory proportion of the amount collected. Generally speaking, telephone follow-up by a well qualified woman will make the personal calls of a collector unnecessary.

SELLING APPROACH. All bills, letters, and personal and telephone calls for collections should have the "selling approach." Subscribers should be given additional reasons why their payments will render effective service which will be pleasing to them. Never threaten them with law suits. A subscription presumably represents good will, and its collection should be so handled that the good will is retained and increased. The subscription should be canceled if the subscriber's financial condition is such that he cannot pay within a reasonable time. A proposed cancellation can often be changed, however, into a postponement for two or three months.

Persistent, prompt, courteous, and varied follow-up of unpaid subscriptions will yield worth-while returns. The process should be continued until its cost is so great in proportion to the amount received from payments that it no longer pays. Then the pledges of the obdurate brethren should be canceled.

MAKE GIVING AND PAYING A PLEASURE. The various procedures outlined above for an intelligently planned and carefully worked out financial program should be adequate to finance a social agency. All the methods which in the long run will be satisfactory are based on education. They utilize the fundamental principle that the individual, both in subscribing and in paying, should be given those facts and those intellectual and emotional stimuli which will make him glad to subscribe adequately and to pay promptly and fully. This is a task of statesmanship.

A successfully organized financial program is a test of all the executive and managerial ability, of all the intelligence, and of all the professional ability which the board, the executive, and the staff, in both the social agency and the community chest, can apply to the problem.

The full success of the financial program will depend on whether or not contributors are assured that every measure practicable has been taken to raise funds through earnings, endowments, public funds, and other means. The financial program of the social agency must be seen as a whole. Each part must be related to the others. If that complete and integrated vision of the financial problem is secured and if thorough understanding is based on that vision, adequate financing should be readily possible for any vigorously and

intelligently conducted social agency which meets a recognizable human need.

QUESTIONS

1. What is done, in some typical social agency you know, to secure income from beneficiaries?

2. What profit-making activities are there, and how are they handled?

3. How are non-profit business ventures handled?

4. Is any income secured from public funds? If so, on what basis? What action is necessary to secure it?

5. Does this agency receive any income from endowment?

6. From what sources has it received its endowment funds?

7. What regulations or policy has the agency regarding the use of capital or income from bequests?

8. How are capital funds invested and handled?

9. What is done to stimulate bequests?

10. If the agency is a member of a community chest, what part does the agency play in the chest campaigns?

11. What collection methods are followed?

12. How might any of these practices be improved?

Chapter XXVII

Teamwork between Agencies

CO-OPERATION ESSENTIAL. No social agency can live for itself alone. Even in the smallest community an agency that is attempting to follow the principles of organizational efficiency will have to accommodate its procedure to the activities of other organizations. In the larger communities the social agency finds itself one among scores, hundreds, and in a few cities thousands of organizations. It must accommodate its program to their activities and work out effective relationships with them. Although the first duty of any social agency, as part of its mutual responsibility to other agencies, is to do its own work efficiently, it can do so only if it has satisfactory means for co-operation with all other agencies whose fields touch its own. A social agency is only successful as it is an effective part of a community plan.

UNDERSTANDING OF OTHER AGENCIES REQUIRED. The first step toward co-operation is an understanding—on the part of the agency's executive, its staff, the members of its board, and its committees—of the other social agencies in the community. This understanding should cover the purposes, the methods, and the types of work of these agencies; the methods of referring cases to them; their general policies in relation to the agency in question and to other agencies; the spirit of the other organizations as expressed in their boards and staffs; some knowledge of their history and background; and anything else that will help to better understanding and closer co-operation.

CARD FILE ON RESOURCES. A mechanical aid to knowledge of the possibilities which lie in other social agencies (and one which any organization will find it wise to keep) is a card file of community resources. In this would appear the names of the various agencies and their purposes, their officers, their addresses, their telephone numbers, and any other specialized information that might be worth while. This list need not be restricted to local agencies but may in-

clude state and national organizations which the social agency might use on occasion. The resource file may also include cards on key individuals—including committee and board members; volunteers; business men; racial, labor, and neighborhood group leaders; executives of newspapers and radio stations; potential committee material; politicians; other professional workers; individuals who may render specialized service; attorneys; clergymen; and so on through all the agencies and individuals of potential service to the agency. This list might be set up in a 3-by-5-inch card file. Someone in the office must be responsible for keeping the file up to date. That is very important. The resource file would manifestly be of value in planning co-operation and in securing the counsel and aid which might be necessary in working out the community relationships of a social agency.

A social service directory, if locally published, would serve much the same purpose.

PLANNED CONTACTS WITH OTHER AGENCIES. Contacts with these community resources—primarily with social agencies rather than with individuals—may be merely a matter of direct discussion between social agencies whenever the need develops, in order to prevent misunderstanding and to clear up difficulties. Executives should know one another personally through calls at their respective agencies. Conferences of agency representatives may be called by executives when difficult cases in which the agencies are concerned need adjustment, when problems of responsibility in the same or adjacent fields develop, and under many other circumstances. Staff members as well as board members may be assigned to work out with other agencies definite agreements and statements of responsibility as to ways of handling cases, the conduct of joint experiments in various fields of endeavor, the exchange of workers between agencies for short periods for mutual advantage, and similar inter-agency problems. Sometimes conferences may be regularly scheduled as a matter of routine between agencies in the same field. On the other hand, they may be called only as occasion offers, by one agency which takes the initiative. Out of these conferences should come written agreement, mutually exchanged.

Some value has been found in joint board meetings, conferences, get-together dinners, teas, and the like between representatives of two or more agencies. Executives of various agencies may be invited to describe the work of their agencies at the staff meetings or board meetings of an agency that wishes to promote co-operation.

AGENCIES WHICH DO NOT WISH TO CO-OPERATE. Sometimes an agency does not wish to co-operate, either because it does not see the value of interaction or because it is more interested in holding on to its own cases for reasons of self-satisfaction than in the well-being of its clients. That agency must be dealt with diplomatically and tactfully through continuing conferences with its executives and board members in order to secure a basis of mutual co-operation. Sometimes the problem is complicated by the fact that one social agency has high standards of work whereas those of another are low. In this case the first agency is faced with a problem of education in social technique. One meeting may lead to another, with free and open discussion on difficult points followed by agreement on outlines for future programs. Mutual relations are a problem not only of the executive or of committees of the board but also of staff members. The executive must foster a co-operative spirit in the members of his staff.

HANDLING CONTROVERSIES. Whenever a controversy develops, personal interviews between the workers most closely in touch with the facts usually overcome the difficulty without its being necessary for the boards to enter the discussion. Even the executive usually should only take a hand when a decision of policy is at stake. He may, however, advise his staff members as to effective procedure.

Face-to-face discussion should take place whenever the issue really demands mutual adjustment. On the other hand, the social agency should be careful not to call conferences on immaterial subjects when telephone calls or correspondence would be equally satisfactory and would save the time necessary for extended interviews.

Co-operation is an attitude as well as a technique. It is an attitude which should permeate the whole organization so that the agency is seen only as a link in the complete chain of joint community endeavor. This attitude may perhaps be most satisfactorily expressed through the agency's participation in the community machinery which already exists or which may be created, such as social service exchanges, community councils of social agencies, community chests, and similar joint activities.

USE OF THE SOCIAL SERVICE EXCHANGE. Every social agency which gives individualized social service should use the social service exchange (sometimes called the central index or confidential exchange). This is merely a confidential card list of the families and individuals known to social agencies, together with the names of the agencies concerned. Inquiry of the exchange prevents duplication of effort, provides a basis for case conferences which result in the de-

velopment of co-operative programs for the client, and makes possible service based on the fullest available knowledge of the problems and background of the client or patient. The social service exchange is an indispensable factor in effective individualized social service.

PARTICIPATION IN THE COMMUNITY COUNCIL. The social service exchange is generally operated by the community council of social agencies or the community chest (the terms are used here interchangeably, because the community chest is merely the financial aspect of the joint endeavor, of which the community council should be the primary expression). The council is a group of persons, representative of the various agencies and of the community, affiliated for fact finding, mutual discussion, joint planning, and common action on mutual problems.

(*a*) *Belong to One or Start One.* Every social agency should be active in the work of the council. Most of the agency's problems of inter-agency relationships should be handled through the committees of the council rather than by direct contact with other agencies. The council provides the machinery through which conflict is avoided, understanding created and co-operation made possible. Every social agency should by all means belong to the community council of social agencies in its community or help to bring about the creation of a council.

(*b*) *Representation by Board Members and Staff Members.* The agency should be represented by competent board and staff members on those committees and departments of the community council which affect its work. Representation in the council should not be restricted to the executive. Participation should be as widespread as possible—for the training of board and staff members, for lessening the burden on the executive, and for giving other agencies the benefit of the points of view of others than the executive. The agency's representatives must take an active part in the various committee activities, represent their agency's point of view (and their own), report to their agency the results of mutual discussion, and bear their full share of creative responsibility in the joint endeavors which the council develops. Through participation in the council, the agency may work out its program of service with full consideration of the needs of other agencies and of the community at large, in the belief that each agency should do that job for which it is best qualified.

(*c*) *Effects of a Council.* A community council of social agencies

makes possible effective mutual working relationships. Through the council the agency may improve its own standards of service. It may set definite boundaries between its service and that of another agency. It may work out agreements as to the extension of its service into new fields of work. It may obtain advice as to the ways in which that work should be carried on. It may participate in surveys of needs and of the relative efficiency of the various agencies concerned. It may help to develop practicable plans for the welfare of the whole community in which each agency has its appropriate part. On the other hand, the agency may agree to reduce its work, to turn it over to some other agency, or even to go out of existence if better ways of handling its work are found. The community council serves as a sort of community brain through which each social agency must send its impulses for co-ordinating intelligence and action. As someone said long ago, the council puts the "unity" in "community."

PARTICIPATION IN A CHEST. As was noted in the previous chapter, the social agency has the responsibility of active participation in the community chest if it belongs to one. The chest is merely another phase of the type of joint planning and action which a community council promotes. The chest is a federation of social agencies engaged in joint collection and distribution of funds for their common needs.

The agency's co-operation within the chest should mean not merely the acceptance of funds which are allocated to it. The agency (as we have said before) should furnish volunteer workers for the annual campaign. It should supply volunteer personnel when needed for campaign offices. It should provide qualified speakers for a year-round public relations program. It should share in the deliberations of the year-round public relations committee and provide adequate publicity material. It should mention its connection with the chest in all agency publicity. It should furnish, monthly, adequate and prompt service and financial reports. It should provide detailed budgets and explain them adequately to the chest budget committee. It should boost the chest publicly rather than complain about its faults (because complaints, which lessen giving, affect each agency as well as the whole fabric of joint finance). It should make suggestions and criticisms directly to the executive of the community chest so that any faults may be corrected.

The community chest can succeed in financing its member organizations adequately only if they participate fully and wholeheartedly

in its activities. The member agencies must do all that lies within their power, not only for their own adequate financing but for that of all the other agencies as well. The welfare of all is so closely intertwined that each agency must be well financed and well conducted if every other is to do its work properly. In the modern community and in membership in the community chest, it is vitally true of both citizens and of social agencies that they "are members one of another."

PARTICIPATION IN COMMUNITY PLANNING. To fulfill the requirement of mutual responsibility for community service, the principle of participation which has been emphasized throughout this book is essential. Decision as to the course to be taken in such emergencies as an unemployment crisis, disaster, or epidemic should be made not by the agency itself but in consultation, through the community council of social agencies or the community chest, with other social agencies and citizens. If financial resources become insufficient, the question as to how this difficulty can be met should be a matter of mutual conference and discussion by all concerned, so that the decision made is that of the group. The strategy of effective community service demands that all agencies shall be regarded as equal in a democracy of social endeavor. Their responsibilities must be seen as mutual. All decisions which affect them must be worked out through a joint facing of the facts, through creative discussion, through concerted planning, through mutual decision, and through the willingness of all concerned to bear the consequences of the course taken. The community council and the community chest can be of pre-eminent value in applying the "technique of group discussion" to the relations of social agencies within the community. Participation in a chest and council may be made our strongest demonstration of democracy at work in the community.

PUBLIC AS WELL AS PRIVATE AGENCIES. The interrelationship of social agencies is a matter for public as well as private agencies. Public agencies should of course be members of community councils, sharing equally with private agencies and with citizens the responsibility for community planning and action. Moreover, the private agencies should work with the public agencies to help them develop to the fullest possible degree. The private agency should aid in developing public standards. It should back up proposed social legislation and appropriation. It should stimulate the public agency to more adequate service. It should turn over to the public agency, when possible, projects which the public is ready to assume, thus freeing

itself for further demonstration and for service in fields not covered by the public agency. Private social agencies can often use the advisory services of experts on the staffs of local, state, and federal governmental agencies for surveys. Through mutual understanding, relationships of great value may be developed.

Public and private agencies are merely two sides of the same thing —community service rendered by public funds, whether paid in taxes or in contributions. The interests of public and private agencies are one, and both types of agency should work as one.

CO-OPERATION WITH NATIONAL AGENCIES. Co-operation does not stop in the local community. Some beginnings in state-wide and national planning have been made by social agencies. The local agency should learn to make full use of its own national organization, utilizing its national public relations material, statistics, comparative figures of experience in other cities, advice on problems and techniques, and personnel service. The local agency should help its national organization to be more effective through service on its boards and committees, through supplying and exchanging information, and through making adequate financial contribution toward its upkeep. Thus the social agency has a responsibility not merely to its own community, but also to similar organizations throughout the country, either directly or through the medium of its national organization. Sharing in the work of the national body brings strength, competent counsel, and mutual experience to the local agency.

The local social agency is a member of a vast fellowship, community-wide, state-wide, nation-wide, and potentially world-wide. In each of these sectors of activity the agency must play its full and proper part with due regard to the interests of other agencies. Social work is a fabric of interwoven strands. Each of them must be strong and adequate if that fabric is to support adequately the well-being of city, state, nation, and humanity.

QUESTIONS

1. In the case of some typical social agency, what understanding do board, executive, staff, and volunteers have of the work of other agencies?

2. How have they gained that knowledge?

3. What use is made of a file of community resources?

4. What planned contacts does this agency have with other agencies?

5. What does this agency do to win over another agency which does not wish to co-operate?

6. How are controversies handled?

7. What use is made of the social service exchange? If none, why?

8. What participation does this agency have in a community council of social agencies?

9. How is it represented in the council?

10. What part do its representatives take in the activities of the council?

11. If a member of a community chest, how does the agency share in its activities and responsibilities?

12. What relation does this agency, if it is a private agency, have to public agencies; or, if a public agency, to private ones?

13. What relationship does the agency have with its national organization, if it has such a connection?

14. How could this agency's attitude or performance be improved in any of these respects?

Bibliography

The following bibliography represents not only our own reading and selection but also several additional resources which were courteously made available.

Mrs. Constance B. Adams, Acting Librarian of the Russell Sage Foundation Library, in the spring of 1946 had a bibliography especially prepared for this book. She wrote, "We have tried to limit it to books only, but in several cases certain pamphlets have seemed too important to ignore. No periodical articles have been included. We have tried also wherever possible to draw on material from the field of social work, rather than from unrelated or indirectly related fields."

Arthur Dunham, Professor of Community Organization, Institute of Social Work, University of Michigan, Detroit, Michigan, supplied a list of selected references on Social Welfare Administration, revised as of October, 1945, and a supplementary list as of June, 1946.

The General Reference and Bibliography Division of the Library of Congress supplied a bibliography on Community Welfare Services: Selection of Recent References on Planning and Organization, compiled by Helen F. Carver and dated January 18, 1945.

Almost any of these books is worth purchasing for reference in a social agency office or for loaning to staff and committee members.

In using some of these books, it may be well to organize a seminar or discussion group in your own office, to meet after hours or perhaps half on agency time and half on personal time, to discuss ways in which the principles presented could be applied to the agency. Members of the group would be expected to study the assignment in the book and their own agency procedure as well, with such discussion in mind.

In addition to the books listed below, we have also found useful the following reference works and periodical publications:

Proceedings of the National Conference of Social Work, 82 North High Street, Columbus, Ohio (consult the index in the back of each volume for administrative subjects).

The Social Work Year Book, published biennially in odd-numbered years by the Russell Sage Foundation, 130 East 22nd Street, New York City (consult index for administrative subjects).

The Survey Midmonthly, 112 East 19th Street, New York City.

Channels, published by the National Publicity Council for Health and Welfare Agencies, 130 East 22nd Street, New York City.

American Business, Dartnell Publications, Inc., 4660 Ravenswood Avenue, Chicago, Illinois.

Office Management and Equipment, Andrew Geyer, Inc., 260 Fifth Avenue, New York City.

We have found it valuable to be a member of the National Office Management Association, 2118 Lincoln-Liberty Building, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. There are chapters of this organization in a good many cities. Members of the organization receive worth-while service bulletins on various phases of office operation.

The references below are arranged roughly by subjects, although some cover the whole range of administrative procedure.

ACCOUNTING AND BUDGETING

Accounting in Community Chests. Community Chests and Councils, Inc., New York, 1945.

American Hospital Association, *Hospital Accounting and Statistics.* American Hospital Association, Chicago, 1940.

Budgets in a Community Chest. Community Chests and Councils, Inc., New York, 1943.

Finney, H. A., *General Accounting.* Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1941.

Haller, C. J., *Suggestions for an Accounting Plan for a Non-Profit Organization, The YWCA.* The Woman's Press, New York, 1936.

Harris, W. O., *Institutional Cost Accounting, as Exemplified by the System Installed at the Eloise Hospital and Infirmary.* Public Administration Service, Chicago, 1944.

Hayes, Monard V., *Accounting for Executive Control.* Harper & Brothers, New York, 1929.

Kester, R. B., *Principles of Accounting.* The Ronald Press, New York, 1939.

Laune, Ferris F., *Uniform Reports and Classification of Accounts for Social Agencies.* Wieboldt Foundation, Chicago, about 1925.

MacDonald, J. H., *Practical Budget Procedure.* Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1939.

Roswell, Charles G., *Accounting Statistics and Business Office Procedures for Hospitals.* United Hospital Fund, New York, 1946.

ADMINISTRATION IN GENERAL

Atwater, Pierce, *Problems of Administration in Social Work.* University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis, 1940.

Barnard, C. I., *The Functions of the Executive.* Harvard University Press, Cambridge, 1938.

Baxter, Bernice, and R. F. Cassidy, *Group Experience, the Democratic Way.* Harper & Brothers, New York, 1943.

Boy Scouts of America, *Community Boy Leadership, a Manual for Scout Executives,* 2nd ed. Published under the supervision of the editorial board representing the National Council of the Boy Scouts of America, New York, 1922.

Breckenridge, S. P., *Public Welfare Administration in the United States; Select Documents,* 2nd ed. University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1938.

Chapman, Frank E., *Hospital Organization and Operation.* The Macmillan Company, New York, 1924.

Cohn, Martin, and Elizabeth Wallace, *Some Problems of Administration in Social Work.* University of Toronto Press, Toronto, 1944.

Dimock, Marshall E., *The Executive in Action.* Harper & Brothers, New York, 1945.

Fansler, Thomas, *Discussion Methods for Adult Groups; Case Studies of the Forum; the Discussion Group, and the Panel,* a study prepared for the American Association for Adult Education. American Association for Adult Education, New York, 1934.

Follett, Mary P., *Creative Experience.* Longmans, Green and Co., New York, 1924.

———, "Some Discrepancies in Leadership Theory and Practice," Chapter XVI in H. C. Metcalf's *Business Leadership.* Isaac Pitman & Sons, New York, 1931.

———, *The New State.* Longmans, Green and Co., New York, 1918.

———, *Dynamic Administration,* the collected papers of Mary Parker Follett, ed. by H. C. Metcalf and L. Urwick. Harper & Brothers, New York, 1942.

Glaser, Comstock, *Administrative Procedure; a Practice Handbook for the Administrative Analyst.* American Council on Public Affairs, Washington, 1941.

Gulick, L. H., and Lyndall Urwick ed., *Papers on the Science of Administration, by Luther Gulick and Others.* Institute of Public Administration, New York, 1937.

Hanchette, Helen W., Jeanette Hanford, Frank J. Hortel, Mary Hester, and Robert F. Nelson, *Some Dynamics of Social Agency Administration.* Family Service Association of America, New York, 1946.

Holtzclaw, Henry F., *Association Management.* The Ronald Press, New York, 1929.

Job, Leonard B., *Business Management of Institutional Homes for Children.* Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1926.

Landis, J. D., *The Administrative Process.* Yale University Press, New Haven, 1938 (Storrs Lectures, 1938).

Leirfallom, Jarl and Drake, Russell P., *Organization and Administration of Local Public Welfare Services.* American Public Welfare Association, Chicago, 1943.

MacEachern, Malcolm T., *Hospital Organization and Management.* Physician's Record Company, Chicago, 1935.

McCandless, James W., *Association Administration.* Association Press, New York, 1925.

McLean, F. H., and Ralph Ormsby, *Organizing a Family Agency.* Family Welfare Association of America, New York, 1944.

Metcalf, Henry C., and Mary P. Follett, *Business Management as a Profession.* McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1927.

Mooney, J. D., and A. C. Reiley, *Principles of Organization.* Harper & Brothers, New York, 1939.
Nash, Jay B., *The Organization and Administration of Playgrounds and Recreation.* A. S. Barnes and Co., New York, 1927.
Pfiffner, J. M., *Public Administration.* The Ronald Press, New York, 1935.
Simon, H. A., and others, *Determining Work Loads for Professional Staff in a Public Welfare Agency.* University of California, Berkeley, 1941.
Stevenson, Marietta, *Public Welfare Administration,* prepared with the assistance of other members of the staff . . . of the American Public Welfare Association. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1938.
Street, Elwood, *The Public Welfare Administrator.* McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1940.
Swift, A. L., *Make Your Agency More Effective, A Manual for Institutional Self-Study.* Association Press, New York, 1941.
Tead, Ordway, *Democratic Administration.* Part I, Creative Management; Part II, Democracy in Administration. Association Press, New York, 1945.
Trecker, Harleigh B., *Group Process in Administration.* The Woman's Press, New York, 1946.
Upson, Lent D., *Letters on Public Administration—From a Dean to His Graduates.* National Training School for Public Service, Detroit, 1945.
Urwick, L., *Elements of Administration.* Harper & Brothers, New York, 1944.
White, L. D., *Introduction to the Study of Public Administration,* revised. The Macmillan Company, New York, 1939.
White, R. C., *Administration of Public Welfare.* American Book Co., New York, 1940.
Work Simplification: as exemplified by the work simplification program of the U. S. Bureau of the Budget. Publication 91, Public Administration Service, Chicago, 1945.

BOARDS AND COMMITTEES

Atwater, Pierce, "Powers and Functions of Lay Boards in Relation to Public Welfare Administration," in *National Conference Proceedings,* National Conference of Social Work, Columbus, Ohio, 1938.
Campbell, Hilary, and Baird Middaugh, *The Annual Meeting.* Social Work Publicity Council, New York, 1935.
Capen, J. F., and M. E. Juckins, *Suggestions for Training Courses for Board and Committee Members.* The Woman's Press, New York, 1934.
Cooper, A. M., *How to Conduct Conferences.* McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1942.
Davis, Evelyn, *Board and Staff Relationship* (pamphlet). Council of Social Agencies, Philadelphia, February, 1938.
Doris, Lillian, *Corporate Meetings, Minutes, and Resolutions.* Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1929.
Elliott, Harrison S., *The Why and How of Group Discussion.* Association Press, New York, 1923.

———, *The Process of Group Thinking.* Association Press, New York, 1928.

Hader, John J., and E. C. Lindeman, *Committees, Their Purposes, Functions, and Administration.* American Management Association, New York, 1930.

Hunt, Edward Eyre, *Conferences, Committees, Conventions, and How to Run Them.* Harper & Brothers, New York, 1925.

King, Clarence, *Social Agency Boards and How to Make Them Effective.* Harper & Brothers, New York, 1938.

Lippitt, Lucile, *Committee Cues.* The Woman's Press, New York, 1939.

National Organization for Public Health Nursing, *Board Members Manual for Board and Committee Members of Public Health Nursing Services.* The Macmillan Company, New York, 1937.

New Haven Council of Social Agencies, *The Board Members; a Guide to the Discharging of Administrative Responsibilities for Social Work.* Yale University Press, New Haven, 1936.

Robert, Henry M., *Robert's Rules of Order.* Scott Foresman and Co., Chicago and New York, 1921.

Sheffield, Alfred Dwight, *Joining in Public Discussion.* Doubleday, Doran and Co., Inc., Garden City, New York, 1922.

———, *Training for Group Experience.* The Inquiry, New York, 1929.

Urice, Jay A., *Working Together.* Association Press, New York, 1940.

Volunteers in Social Welfare, a Partial Bibliography. Volunteer Service Committee of Community Chests and Councils, Inc., New York, 1946.

Walser, Frank, *The Art of Conference.* Harper & Brothers, New York, 1933.

COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION

Colcord, J. C., *Your Community; Its Provisions for Health, Education, Safety, and Welfare,* 2nd ed. (a new ed. in preparation). Russell Sage Foundation, New York, 1941.

Karpf, M. J., *Jewish Community Organization in the United States; an Outline of Types of Organizations, Activities, and Problems.* Block, New York, 1938.

McMillen, A. W., *Community Organization for Social Work.* University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1945.

Morgan, A. E., *The Small Community, Foundation of Democratic Life; What It Is and How to Achieve It.* Harper & Brothers, New York, 1942.

North, Cecil Clare, *The Community and Social Welfare.* McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1931.

Norton, W. J., *The Co-operative Movement in Social Work.* The Macmillan Company, New York, 1927.

Sanderson, E. D., and R. A. Polson, *Rural Community Organization.* John Wiley & Sons, Inc., New York, 1939.

Steiner, J. F., *Community Organization,* revised ed. The Century Company, New York, 1930.

Warner, W. L., and P. S. Lunt, *The Social Life of a Modern Commu-*

nity. Yale University Press, New Haven, 1941 (Yankee city series, vol. 1).

FINANCE

Gamble, C. W., and W. W. Gamble, *How to Raise Money; Fund Raising Programs for Social and Religious Organizations*. Association Press, New York, 1942.

Gerlinger, I. H., *Money Raising: How To Do It*. Suttonhouse, Los Angeles, 1938.

Jones, J. P., ed., *The Yearbook of Philanthropy, 1942–43; Presenting Information and Statistics Covering American Philanthropy Since the Year 1920, with Charts and Tables*. Inter-River Press, New York, 1943.

Lee, Tolman, *Funds and Friends*. The Woman's Press, New York, 1925.

Lindeman, E. C., *Wealth and Culture; a Study of One Hundred Foundations and Community Trusts and Their Operations During the Decade 1921–1930*. Harcourt, Brace & Co., New York, 1936.

Pierce, L. L., *How to Raise Money*. Harper & Brothers, New York, 1932.

Proctor, Arthur W., and Arthur A. Shuck, *The Financing of Social Work*. McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1926.

Williams, Pierce, and Frederick E. Croxton, *Corporation Contributions to Organized Welfare Services*, Publication No. 16. National Bureau of Economic Research, New York, 1930.

OFFICE EQUIPMENT AND METHODS

Chaffee, Allen, *How to File Business Papers and Records; a Practical Business Manual Dealing with the Filing Systems and Equipment in Use Today*. McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1938.

Darlington, G. M., *Office Management*, revised ed. The Ronald Press, New York, 1942.

Elwell, F. H., and others, *Business Record-Keeping*. Ginn & Company, New York, 1941.

Federal Security Agency, *Know Your Typewriter*, Training Manual No. 1. Federal Security Agency, Washington, D. C., 1943.

Goldsmith, Dorothy B., *Bibliography on Office Management*. National Office Management Association, Indianapolis, 1931.

Leffingwell, W. H., and E. M. Robinson, *Textbook of Office Management*, 2nd ed. McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1943.

Picken, James Hamilton, *Business Correspondence*. McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1926.

Ralph, Georgia G., *Elements of Record-Keeping for Child-Helping Organizations*. Survey Associates, Inc., New York, 1915.

Stricker, A. H., *Seven Steps toward Simplified Office Procedures*. McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1943.

Walker, L. C., *The Office and Tomorrow's Business*. The Century Co., New York, 1930.

Weeks, B. M., *How to File and Index*, revised ed. The Ronald Press, New York, 1939.

PERSONAL EFFICIENCY

Clark, Margaret Logan, and Briseis Teall *The Executive Director on the Job in a Membership Organization—the Y.W.C.A.* The Woman's Press, New York, 1947.

Emerson, Harrington, *Twelve Principles of Efficiency.* The Engineering Magazine, New York, 1912.

Faught, Millard C., and Lawrence Hammond, *The Care and Feeding of Executives.* Wormwood Press, New York, 1945.

Gowin, Enoch Burton, *Developing Executive Ability.* The Ronald Press, New York, 1919.

How to Be Personally Efficient in Business. McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1915.

Laird, Donald A., *Increasing Personal Efficiency.* Harper & Brothers, New York, 1925.

Outline of Executive Success. Hammermill Paper Co., Erie, Pa., 1931.

Pitkin, Walter B., *The Art of Rapid Reading.* McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1929.

Purinton, Edward Earle, *Personal Efficiency in Business.* Robert M. McBride & Company, New York, 1919.

Schell, E. H., *The Technique of Executive Control,* 5th ed. McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1942.

Starch, Daniel, *How to Develop Your Executive Ability.* Harper & Brothers, New York, 1946.

We Want an Executive. Community Chests and Councils, Inc., New York, 1947.

PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT

Burtt, H. E., *Principles of Employment Psychology,* revised ed. Harper & Brothers, New York, 1942.

Chase, Stuart, and Mrs. M. T. Chase, *Men at Work;* some democratic methods for the power age. Harcourt, Brace & Co., Inc., New York, 1945.

Evans, J. J., Jr., *A Program for Personnel Administration.* McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1945.

Federal Security Agency, *A Personnel Program.* A manual for executives and personnel officers. Federal Security Agency, Division of Personnel Management, Washington, D. C., 1944.

Federal Security Agency, *What Supervisors Should Know About Meritorious Increases,* Training Manual No. 2 (Division of Personnel Supervision and Management), Washington, D. C., 1944.

Halsey, George D., *Supervising People.* Harper & Brothers, New York., 1946.

Institute for Training in Municipal Administration, *Municipal Personnel Administration,* Municipal management series No. 1, 3rd ed. International City Managers' Association, Chicago, 1942.

McClelland, Frank C., and Edwin M. Robinson, *Office Training and Standards.* McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1929.

Meriam, Lewis, *Public Personnel Problems from the Standpoint of the Operating Officer.* Brookings Institution, Washington, 1938 (Institute for Government Research Studies in Administration).

Mosher, W. E., and J. D. Kingsley, *Public Personnel Administration,* 2nd ed., revised. Harper & Brothers, New York, 1941.

Poffenberger, A. T., *Principles of Applied Psychology.* D. Appleton-Century Company, New York, 1942.

Roathlisberger, F. J., *Management and Morale.* Harvard University Press, Cambridge, 1941.

Scott, W. D., and others, *Personnel Management;* principles, practices and point of view, 3rd ed. McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1941.

Tead, Ordway, *Human Nature and Management.* The Application of Psychology to Executive Leadership. McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1929.

———, and H. C. Metcalf, *Personnel Administration; its Principles and Practices.* 3rd ed., revised. McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1933.

United States Department of Agriculture. Graduate School, *Administrative Management, Principles and Techniques; a Series of Lectures by Outstanding Leaders in the Management Field, Delivered in the School from October to December 1937.* The Graduate School, U. S. Dept. of Agriculture, Washington, 1938.

Walters, J. E., *Personnel Relations; Their Application in a Democracy.* The Ronald Press, New York, 1945.

Woodward, L. E., and T. A. C. Rennie, *Jobs and the Man;* a Guide for Employers, Supervisors, Interviewers, Counselors, Foremen, and Shop Stewards in Understanding and Dealing with Workers—Veterans or Civilians. Charles C. Thomas, Springfield, Ill., 1945.

PUBLICITY AND PUBLIC RELATIONS

Albig, William, *Public Opinion.* McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1939.

Appel, Benjamin, *The People Talk.* E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc., New York, 1940.

Baker, H. C., and Mrs. M. S. Routzahn, *How to Interpret Social Welfare.* Russell Sage Foundation, New York, 1946.

Burnett, Verne., *You and Your Public; a Guide Book to the New Career —Public Relations.* Harper & Brothers, New York, 1943.

Childs, H. L., *An Introduction to Public Opinion.* John Wiley & Sons, Inc., New York, 1940.

Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada, Committee on Public Relations of Public Personnel Agencies, *Public Relations of Public Personnel Agencies; a Report Submitted to the Assembly by the Committee.* The Assembly, Chicago, 1941.

Fine, Benjamin, *Educational Publicity.* Harper & Brothers, New York, 1943 (American Council on Public Relations, Public Relations Studies).

Flesch, Rudolph, *The Art of Plain Talk.* Harper & Brothers, New York, 1946.

Graves, H. F., and J. S. Bowman, ed., *Types of Persuasion.* The Dryden Press, New York, 1938.

Harlow, Rex F., and Marvin M. Black, *Practical Public Relations.* Harper & Brothers, New York, 1947.

Hiscock, I. V., *Ways to Community Health Education.* Commonwealth Fund, New York, 1939.

International City Managers' Association, *Municipal Public Relations; a Suggested Program for Improving Relations with the Public, by E. D. Woolpert.* The Association, Chicago, 1940.

Levy, H. P., *Building a Popular Movement; a Case Study of the Public Relations of the Boy Scouts of America.* Russell Sage Foundation, New York, 1944 (Studies in Public Relations).

Lippman, Walter, *Public Opinion.* Harcourt, Brace & Co., New York, 1922.

McCamy, J. L., *Government Publicity; Its Practice in Federal Administration.* University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1939 (Studies in Public Administration, vol. 10).

Mills, A. B., *Hospital Public Relations.* Physicians' Record Co., Chicago, 1939.

Overstreet, Harry, *Influencing Human Behavior.* The People's Institute Publishing Co., Inc., New York, 1925.

Routzahn, Evart G., and Mary S. Routzahn, *The A.B.C. of Exhibit Planning.* Russell Sage Foundation, New York, 1918.

———, *A Study in Public Relations; Case History of the Relations Maintained Between a Department of Public Assistance and the People of the State.* Russell Sage Foundation, New York, 1943 (Studies in Public Relations).

Squire, Irving, and K. A. Wilson, *Informing Your Public.* Association Press, New York, 1924.

Stillman, C. C., *Social Work Publicity.* The Century Company, New York, 1927.

Winans, J. A., *Speech-Making; with a Chapter on Voice and Speech by C. K. Thomas.* Appleton-Century, 1938.

RESEARCH AND STATISTICS

Brinton, Willard C., *Graphic Presentation.* Brinton Associates, New York, 1939.

Croxton, F. E., and D. J. Cowden, *Applied General Statistics.* Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1939.

Davies, G. R., and W. F. Crowder, *Methods of Statistical Analysis in the Social Sciences,* John Wiley & Sons, Inc., New York, 1933.

Fisher, R. A., *Statistical Methods for Research Workers,* 9th ed., revised & enlarged. Oliver & Boyd, Ltd., Edinburgh, 1944.

Hagood, M. J., *Statistics for Sociologists.* Reynal & Hitchcock, New York, 1941.

Karsten, Karl G., *Charts and Graphs.* Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1923.

Lundberg, G. A., *Social Research, a Study in Methods of Gathering Data*, 2nd ed. Longmans, Green & Co., Inc., New York, 1942.
McCormick, T. C., *Elementary Social Statistics*. McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York, 1941.
McMillen, A. W., *Measurement in Social Work*, Social Service Monograph, No. 12. University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1930.
Mills, F. C., *Statistical Methods Applied to Economics and Business*, revised ed. Henry Holt & Co., Inc., New York, 1938.
Neurath, Otto, *Modern Man in the Making*. (Excellent examples of the use of graphic materials.) Knopf, New York, 1939.
White, R. C., *Social Statistics*. Harper & Brothers, New York, 1933.
Yule, G. U., and M. G. Kendall, *Introduction to the Theory of Statistics*, 12th ed., revised. Charles Griffin & Co., Ltd., London, 1940.

Index